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THE

MISCELLANEOUS DOCUMENTS

OF THE

SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES

FOR THE

SECOND SESSION OF THE FIFTY-THIRD CONGRESS.

1893-'94.

IN TWELVE VOLUMES.

Volume 1.—Nos. 1 to 103, inclusive, excep Nos. 10 and 12.
Volume 2.—No. 10, Seventh Annual Report Interstate Commerce Commission.
Volume 3.—No. 12, Congressional Directory.
Volume 4.—No. 104, Annual Report of the American Historical Association.
Volume 5.—Nos. 105 to 276, inclusive, except Nos. 122, 127, 178, 200, 266, and 274.
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Volume 7.—No. 127, Annual Report of the Commissioner of Patents, 1893.
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Volume 10.—No. 274, Berlin Silver Commission, 1894.
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Volume 12.—No. 278, Digest of Decisions and Precedents.

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O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 105.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARCH 5, 1894.—Ordered to lie on the table and be printed.

The VICE-PRESIDENT presented the following

LETTER FROM THE COMMISSIONERS OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA RELATIVE TO UNDERGROUND CONDUITS FOR ELECTRIC WIRES.

OFFICE COMMISSIONERS DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA,
Washington, March 1, 1894.

SIR: The Commissioners have the honor to return herewith, with their answer thereto, the following resolution of the Senate, dated February 20, 1894:

Whereas it has been announced in the public press that the Board of Commissioners of the District of Columbia are about to abandon certain underground conduits in use for fire-alarm, telegraph, and police telephone service in certain portions of the District of Columbia, and have ordered in place of said conduits that a line of poles be erected from the rear of the office of said telegraph and telephone service in said District, along Four-and-a-half street to Virginia avenue SW., for the purpose of stringing overhead wires thereon; and

Whereas, by the act of Congress approved July 18, 1888, entitled "An act making appropriations to provide for the expenses of the government of the District of Columbia for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1889, and for other purposes," it was provided that the Commissioners of the District of Columbia should not, after the 15th day of September, 1888, permit or authorize any additional telegraph, telephone, electric-lighting, or other wires to be erected or maintained on or over any of the streets or avenues of the city of Washington: Therefore,

Resolved, That the Commissioners of the District of Columbia be, and they are hereby, directed to report forthwith whether they have directed, or are about to direct, the abandonment of any underground conduits now in use by the District and the erection or maintenance in place thereof of any telegraph, telephone, electric light, or other wires on or over any of the streets or avenues of the city of Washington; and if such orders have been or are about to be given, under and by virtue of what authority of law said action on their part has been or is about to be so taken.

Attest: WM. R. COX,
Secretary.

The Commissioners have to state that on February 12, 1894, they issued the following order:

Ordered, That a line of poles be erected from the rear of the office of the telegraph and telephone service along Four-and-a-half street to Virginia avenue SW., terminating at No. 4 engine house, for the purpose of stringing the wires necessary for the public service in that section of the city.

This order was issued to meet a public exigency set forth in the following copies of communications from the superintendent of the telegraph and telephone service of the District of Columbia, and in pursu-

ance of the advice of the attorney for said District as given in the following copy of an opinion of that officer:

WASHINGTON, D. C., *January 27, 1894.*

SIRS: The underground cable from this office down Four-and-a-half street to Virginia avenue, SW., carrying the fire-alarm and important police and school telephone wires, has gotten into such a leaky condition, in consequence of the insecure and cheap method of construction (or rather, simply laying, as an experiment, in a cheap wooden box), that it is no longer reliable for the important work expected over its 12 conductors, and upon which the safety of South Washington depends.

Several hundred dollars were expended in repairing this cable a few years ago, and to put it in a fairly good condition at this time would involve an expenditure of from $1,000 to $2,000; and even then it would not be reliable, owing to the fact that it was laid only about 18 inches below the surface in a pine box which rotted away years ago. It was put down only as an experiment.

It is not, in my judgment, advisable to further repair this cable, but, instead, to erect a good line of poles from in rear of this office along Four-and-a-half street to Virginia avenue, terminating at No. 4 engine house.

The proposed line of poles can be erected for about $475, and the funds on hand are sufficient to meet the expense.

I respectfully recommend the erection of the poles, and have the honor to request your approval.

Very respectfully,

HENRY R. MILES,
Superintendent Telegraph and Telephone Service, District of Columbia.

The COMMISSIONERS OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *January 30, 1894.*

SIRS: Referring to my letter of the 27th instant, in regard to the leaky cables on Four-and-a-half street, I desire to add to what I then said the further history of those lines, which will show, as I think, the legal right on your part to permit the erection of the poles suggested. Prior to the laying of the cables in question, the District owned and maintained a line of poles along Four-and-a-half street supporting overhead wires for the same purpose for which the cables were substituted and are now used; and the old poles were on the identical route proposed for the new line of poles. The reason for selecting Four-and-a-half street for the experimental cables was that the poles then along that street were in bad condition, requiring renewal if not substituted by cable. Upon the completion of the cables the old poles were removed because not then needed. Now the cables having failed, and having no funds at your disposal to repair or renew the cables, and having funds sufficient to erect new poles, coupled with the absolute necessity to do one or the other for the protection of a large and important section of the city, makes it clear to my mind that there is no legal obstacle in the way. If, instead of putting down this experimental cable system ten years ago, new poles had been erected and were now in a dangerous condition, no question could be raised as to the right to put up new poles for the proper support of the wires. Because the use of poles was suspended for a time, while experimenting with cables, does not, in my judgment, forfeit the right of the District to reestablish its long-existing fire-alarm wires, on original pole lines, or the erection of new poles where and when necessary for the maintenance of the service. All of which I humbly submit for your consideration.

Very respectfully,

HENRY R. MILES,
Superintendent Telegraph and Telephone Service.

The COMMISSIONERS OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *February 24, 1894.*

SIRS: I have the honor to make the following statement as to the history of the underground cables on Four-and-a-half street, about to be superseded by the erection of a line of poles from in rear of this office along Four-and-a-half street to No. 4 engine house on Virginia avenue southwest: From the summer of 1875 to the summer of 1884 the District of Columbia owned and used a line of poles along Four-and-a-half street between the points named for the support of its fire alarm and other municipal wires. During the spring of 1884 the Commissioners were induced, largely by Capt. Greene, an assistant to the Engineer Commissioner, and without special authority or direction from Congress, but in their own wise discretion, to lay an experimental line of underground cables to test the feasibility of underground conductors for telegraph and telephone service. Four-and-a-half street was

selected for the experiment for the reason that the poles along that route were in bad condition, and if not superseded by cable would have to be replaced by new poles. The experimental cables were laid under the sidewalks in a shallow ditch about 18 inches deep, in a box of pine boards, wholly unprotected, which of course soon rotted away. Frequent opening of the sidewalks by plumbers and others in the laying of gas and water pipes, and for the necessary care of the same, subjected these unprotected cables to many unintentional but serious injuries, such as lacerating the lead covering so as to expose the insulation of the conductors to the slow but surely destructive action of the wet earth in which the cables rest. As early as the spring of 1889 the leakage of currents, resulting as I have stated, became so serious that very extensive repairs had to be made—cutting out many long sections and inserting new lengths of cable, involving an expenditure of nearly $800 for labor and material. Since that time like causes have produced like effects until the cables are so leaky or, in other words, permit so great an escape of the electric current from many of the conductors, that it is hazardous to continue the further use of them. To repair them even for temporary use would involve an expense difficult to estimate, but not less than $1,000 and very possibly $2,000, which, in my judgment, would be throwing so much money away.

The cables were good, but in consequence of the insecure method of laying could not last. All of south and southeast Washington get telegraph and telephone service through the lines along this street; and there are no other pole lines nor conduits to which the conductors could be shifted. The present state of available appropriation for support of the telegraph and telephone service wholly forbids an attempt to repair these cables; but it is barely sufficient to erect the necessary poles and string uncovered wire.

The setting of the contemplated poles is not for the purpose of erecting new lines, but simply to perpetuate existing municipal lines that are absolutely necessary for the protection of life and property.

The erection of the poles in question is not, I think, even a technical violation of the law quoted in the Senate resolution, for the reason that it is not for additional wires but for the same wires which have been maintained on that street since 1875.

It will be observed that the law quoted is silent in regard to poles which may be necessary for the support of the then existing lines. It is a fact, too, that almost every year since the passage of the law referred to Congress has made provision for extension of new overhead wires for District municipal service, thereby showing that the act quoted was not intended to hamper or cripple, much less prevent the support of the telegraph and telephone service of the District of Columbia for municipal purposes.

Respectfully submitted.

HENRY R. MILES,
Superintendent Telegraph and Telephone Service, District of Columbia.

The COMMISSIONERS OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

WASHINGTON, *February 5, 1894.*

GENTLEMEN: I have the honor to return to you herewith a communication from Mr. Henry R. Miles, superintendent District police telegraph and telephone service, under date 30th ultimo, calling attention to the failure of the telegraph and fire-alarm cables belonging to the District, in Four-and-a-half street SW., in this city, and submitting, for the reasons stated in his letter, the right of the District to temporarily reinstate poles for the proper support of overhead wires in that street. I have carefully examined this question. The law in regard to overhead wires applies to telegraph, telephone, and electric lighting companies, and does not, in my opinion, prevent the District of Columbia from maintaining overhead wires in cases where, as in this case, the underground cables have failed, and the municipality has no funds at its disposal to repair or renew them, but sufficient only to erect new poles. The tendency of the legislation by Congress in regard to overhead wires is against private companies operating them. It was never intended to prevent the Commissioners from erecting poles and overhead wires for the use of the District police and fire-alarm telegraph system for sending messages or signals to guard against disorder and conflagration. Such a use of the streets is not like a private use of them by telegraph, telephone or electric-lighting companies, but it is a municipal use of the greatest importance—the protection of life and property. For these reasons I am of opinion the emergency shown in the communication of Mr. Miles justifies the erection by the District of poles and overhead wires on Four-and-a-half street, and the maintenance of them until Congress shall provide for an underground cable.

Very respectfully,

S. T. THOMAS,
Attorney, District of Columbia.

The COMMISSIONERS.

The Commissioners sought to meet this emergency in some other way than that to which they were at last compelled to resort, as will appear from the following suggestions and inquiry addressed to the superintendent of the telegraph and telephone system, and his response thereto.

FEBRUARY 8, 1894.

Before authorizing erection of pole line I think effort should be made—

(1) To have wires put in any private conduit which may now be laid along the route or any part of it.

(2) In absence of such conduit to offer to the Chesapeake and Potomac Telephone Company permission for laying the conduit with use of part of for the District wires.

(3) Failing in the above to string the wires on poles already erected.

CHAS. F. POWELL,
Captain of Engineers, U. S. A.,
Engineer Commissioner, District of Columbia.

Superintendent MILES:

Is there time for the experiments suggested above, or is relief now demanded?

JOHN W. ROSS,
President Board of Commissioners, District of Columbia.

FEBRUARY 10, 1894.

Respectfully returned with report that there are no conduits along that route. Neither are there any existing pole lines upon which our wires could be strung. It is true that the Baltimore and Potomac Railroad Company and the Western Union Telegraph Company each have poles along Sixth street, but their poles are already crowded with their own wires, which, with the electric-light wires along Sixth street, rendered it impracticable to use Sixth street for District wires. It would not be safe to delay the erection of the proposed poles to await experiments.

I have made a careful study of the entire subject and again recommend the erection at once of the proposed poles.

HENRY R. MILES,
Superintendent Telegraph and Telephone Service, District of Columbia.

The opinion that it was not the purpose of the legislation referred to in the resolution to prohibit the reconstruction of the electric line as proposed in the order of the Commissioners, seemed to the Commissioners to derive essential support from the use of the word "additional" in the prohibition referred to, as the action contemplated by the Commissioners' order was not the construction of an additional line, but the modified perpetuation of an existing one; also from the wording of the specific appropriation for "purchase of poles" and other material for the extension and repair of the lines of the telegraph and telephone service, which has been repeated in the same phraseology in each subsequent annual appropriation for the support of the District government. The appropriation was evidently made in that way in recognition of the necessity for the use of poles to enable the Commissioners to meet, among other things, emergencies such as rendered necessary the action they took in this case. In further support of this view the Commissioners submit the fact that no appropriation has been made to place the municipal wires underground, or sufficient for the reconstruction of the section of existing unserviceable conduit, although the attention of Congress has repeatedly been called by them to the advisability of providing for the construction and maintenance of an underground municipal electric system.

As showing the persistence of the Commissioners in their efforts to obtain such an appropriation, they refer to the item of $300,000 "for underground conduits" embraced in their estimates for the fiscal year 1895, for purchasing, enlarging, and extending the electrical subways, and to the following extract from their annual report with reference to that estimate, viz: "Should Congress make this appropriation, *which*

s earnestly recommended, the problem of abating overhead wires of the elegraph and telephone service on highways will have found a satisactory solution." This recommendation, also, has been disregarded by he Appropriation Committee of the House of Representatives by the mission of any provision for underground electrical construction from he District appropriation bill for 1895, which it prepared.

The Commissioners submit that the obligation to maintain a fire larm and police signal electric system excludes the inference that hey could inculpably leave a large portion of the city without the rotection afforded by that system, because they had not the means to epair a section of unserviceable underground line, while they had at heir disposal adequate funds specifically appropriated to provide naterial for keeping the system intact by the construction of an levated connection over the same route.

Very respectfully,

JOHN W. ROSS,
President.

Hon. A. E. STEVENSON,
President of the U. S. Senate.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 106.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARCH 5, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Commerce and ordered to be printed.

Mr. SQUIRE presented the following

MEMORIAL FROM PUGET SOUND HARBOR No. 16, AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF MASTERS AND PILOTS OF STEAM VESSELS, RELATIVE TO PUBLICATION OF PILOT CHARTS.

SEATTLE, WASH., *February 16, 1894.*

To the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States:

Your memorialist, Puget Sound Harbor No. 16, American Association of Masters and Pilots of Steam Vessels, would respectfully call your attention to the fact that pilot charts of the North Atlantic Ocean are issued monthly by the hydrographic office of the Bureau of Navigation.

The useful information which these charts contain of the magnetic variation, prevailing fogs, currents, probable direction and strength of winds, storms, cyclones, sailing routes to be followed by steam and sailing vessels, weather, temperature and storm signals, use of oil at sea, icebergs, derelicts, floating logs and other sources of danger is of inestimable value to the mariner, enabling him to shorten voyages and avoid many dangers.

The benefits to commerce and navigation by the use of the North Atlantic pilot chart are innumerable. It being the universal desire of mariners that a pilot chart for the North Pacific should be published by the Hydrographic Office, we would urgently request that the item of $10,000 for the publication of a North Pacific chart, forming part of the estimate of expenditures for the ensuing year by the Secretary of the Navy, be allowed and the appropriation made.

If by following the chart rules for the use of oil at sea a single vessel or steamship is kept from sinking, thereby saving life and property, the small amount representing the cost of this chart will have been wisely expended.

During the past fiscal year 375 vessels, having 82,345 net tonnage and 93,420 gross tonnage, were registered, licensed, and enrolled in the district of Puget Sound. The custom-house records, district of Puget Sound, for 1893 show:

	Vessels.	Tonnage.
Foreign entrances	1,214	756,475
Coastwise entrances	251	292,326
Total	1,465	1,048,801
Foreign clearances	1 385	891,386
Coastwise clearances	192	211,766
Total	1,527	1,103,152

At a rough estimate, and assuming that the same vessels both entered and cleared, the value of the vessels on the Pacific engaged in the Puget Sound trade during 1893 was between $40,000,000 or $50,000,000. This fleet is operated at an annual expense of not less than $3,000,000 in wages alone, and a probable expense of about $6,000,000. If the value of cargoes be added to that of the vessels it can easily be seen what a small proportion the appropriation of $10,000 bears to the amount of money invested in vessels and cargoes which enter and clear in the Puget Sound district alone, without considering other districts which would be benefited, beyond any mere money consideration, by the publication of the proposed chart. If the masters of the many vessels at sea could be communicated with they would doubtless be only too glad to add their voice to our plea.

To navigators, we believe, the proposed chart will be second only in usefulness to that of the Light-House Service.

Resolved, That copies of this memorial be forwarded to the Congressional delegation of the State of Washington, and that they be requested to use their influence to secure the aforesaid appropriation.

Resolved, That the captain's clerk of this harbor be instructed to communicate with all other harbors of masters and pilots on this coast and request their cooperation and assistance in securing this much-desired appropriation

H. K. STRUVE,
Captain.

Per E. F. B.,
Ser. Pilot.

[SEAL.] F. A. RICHARDSON,
Captain's Clerk.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 107.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARCH 5, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Rules and ordered to be printed.

Mr. ALLEN presented the following

AMENDMENT

To the rules of the Senate:

RULE —. It shall be the duty of the committee to whom a bill, resolution, or other measure may be referred, to report the same back to the Senate within thirty days from the date of such reference. If such committee shall fail to so report the same within that time, the Senator introducing such bill, resolution, or other measure shall have an absolute right to have the same reported to the Senate in writing within five days after demanding the same in open Senate.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 108.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARCH 5, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Military Affairs and ordered to be printed.

Mr. MARTIN presented the following

MEMORIAL OF WILLIAM P. HOGARTY, TO ACCOMPANY SENATE BILL 993, FOR THE RELIEF OF CAPT. WILLIAM P. HOGARTY.

To the Senate of the United States:

The favorable consideration by Congress of the bill for the relief of W. P. Hogarty (S. 993—H. R. 2393) is petitioned for solely on grounds of justice and equity, herein set forth at necessary length. It is claimed that it is not only a merited measure of relief to Capt. Hogarty, but that the subject involved is of more than passing interest to the whole Army as affecting those officers who, though the lowest in rank, yet are always the first to meet the enemy in battle and who invariably have in time of war the most arduous and hazardous duties to perform, constituting, as they do, the cleaving edge of the Army.

It is affirmed without fear of successful refutation that no similar measure of relief has been extended by Congress for greater gallantry in action, or for more meritorious services rendered, or for more numerous disabilities received, or for greater suffering endured as a result of military service during and since the late war.

To a clear understanding of the merits of this measure and of the equities involved it is necessary to refer to the various acts of Congress affecting promotion on the retired list of the Army.

The act of July 28, 1866, provides, in section 32:

> That officers of the regular Army entitled to be retired on account of disability occasioned by wounds received in battle may be retired on the *full rank of the command held by them, whether in the regular or volunteer service, at the time such wounds were received.*

Under this law a lieutenant, if in command of his company, when wounded, would, when retired, be immediately promoted on the retired list to the full rank of captain, it mattered not whether he was a *second or first lieutenant.* It will also be observed that the *greater or lesser degree of disability* occasioned by such wounds or the *character of the service rendered were in no way essential to such promotion.*

This law was repealed by the act of June 10, 1872, but only as affecting subsequent retirements, officers promoted on the retired list under the act of July 28, 1866, being exempt from its operations. Therefore in the case of officers who, like Capt. Hogarty, were retired previous to June 10, 1872, the law of July 28, 1866, promoting officers on the retired list to the rank of command held when wounded, is still in full force and applicable in law and equity to their cases.

Had Capt. Hogarty's deafness been the result of a wound, it matters not how slight, or how devoid of merit the service rendered when incurred, he would have been promoted immediately upon his retirement in 1871 to the full rank of captain, mounted, as was done in the case of many others, as it was the rank of the command held by him when his deafness was incurred. This the following certificate of Capt. Levi F. Burnett clearly proves:

Certificate of Capt. Levi F. Burnett, Seventh U. S. Infantry.

[Now on file in the record room of the Senate.]

To whom it may concern:

This is to certify that I have been personally acquainted with Lieut. W. P. Hogarty, U. S. Army, retired, since 1865, at which time he was assigned to the Twenty-first regiment Veteran Reserve Corps of which I was adjutant. Immediately upon his joining the regiment he was placed in command of Company K, the command of which he retained until the regiment was disbanded at the close of the war.

Shortly afterward he was ordered to duty in the Bureau R. F. and A. L. for the State of Kentucky, of which I was adjutant-general.

During the larger portion of the time Lieut. Hogarty served in Kentucky he was on duty at the headquarters of the commissioner for the State, and under my personal observation, performing duties which exposed him to all kinds of weather at the most inclement seasons of the year, on account of which his sense of hearing became so greatly impaired he was granted a leave of absence on surgeon's certificate of disability with permission to visit Europe for special treatment.

From the opportunities offered me by my position both as adjutant of the Twenty-first regiment Veteran Reserve Corps, and as adjutant-general for the commissioner of the State of Kentucky, I have no hesitancy in declaring that the duties performed by Lieut. W. P. Hogarty during these periods were similar in every respect, fully as important, as difficult and dangerous in their execution, requiring as much good judgment and wise discretion in their performance as were assigned to any officer on similar service in the State holding the rank of captain.

The efficient manner in which Lieut. Hogarty discharged these important duties gave entire satisfaction to all his superior officers. This is further and more fully attested by the late Maj. Gen. Jeff. C. Davis, commanding the military district of Kentucky, in a communication to the War Department and now on file in the Adjutant-General's office, who said:

"Lieut. Hogarty is an intelligent and efficient officer. * * * He has been rendering gallant and signal service arresting guerrillas and desperadoes in different parts of the State."

LEVI F. BURNETT,
Lieutenant, Seventh U. S. Infantry.

The following statement of Col. George A. Woodward, U. S. Army, who commanded Capt. Hogarty's regiment, shows still further that Capt. Hogarty always had the duties of a captain to perform, both in the command of his company and also that of his post:

Col. Woodward's statement.

I take pleasure in stating that I have known Capt. W. P. Hogarty for many years. He served under my command in Tennessee between 1867 and 1870. At that time he was a second lieutenant in the Forty-fifth U. S. Infantry.

He was an excellent officer and not only performed the duties of a subaltern with fidelity and intelligence, but being sent by me to command the company and post of Pulaski, Tenn., he displayed in that service a high degree of efficiency.

He subsequently commanded his company and the post of Chattanooga, Tenn., confirming by his conduct there the good promise of his earlier service as a company and post commander.

GEORGE A. WOODWARD,
Colonel, U. S. Army (Retired).

The above certificate of Capt. Levi F. Burnett proves that Capt. Hogarty's deafness was contracted while performing the duties of a captain, mounted, while on detached duty serving on the staff of Maj. *Gen. Jeff C. Davis,* commanding the military district of Kentucky.

The subsequent statement of Col. Woodward still further shows that Capt. Hogarty was always in command of his company and post, performing not only the duties of a captain in the command of his company, but invariably had the duties of still higher rank to perform in the command of his post. In addition thereto he has held independent commands on the frontiers equal to that of a captain, in the discharge of which duties his deafness has been still further increased.

Subsequent to the foregoing acts another law was passed affecting promotion on the retired list. It was approved March 2, 1875, and was known as the Crawford bill. Under its operations officers previously promoted on the retired list were *reduced from the "rank of command" to the "actual rank" held when wounded.* A proviso was attached to this bill which exempted from any reduction thereunder those officers who, like Capt. Hogarty, had lost an arm or a leg, or had been in service twenty-five years.

It is clear that, had Capt. Hogarty received promptly that promotion to which he was undeniably entitled, he would have continued to have held the promotion under the proviso quoted because he had lost an arm. But he has not only lost an arm, he has also lost the sense of hearing, his deafness proving even a greater disability than the loss of an arm or a leg. It totally incapacitates and disqualifies him from engaging in any civil pursuit or occupation whatever; moreover, it forced him upon the retired list contrary to his expressed wishes, when he was the senior of his grade and a vacancy existed in the grade above him. In support of which the following letter of Maj. Charles Smart, of the Medical Corps of the Army, an officer of eminent standing in the medical profession, clearly proves:

WAR DEPARTMENT, SURGEON-GENERAL'S OFFICE,
Washington, D. C., February 19, 1892.

DEAR SIR: I do not think any line of treatment will help your deafness much. Ear drums are of no account in your case, and trumpets, although they increase the volume of sound, diminish distinctness of articulation.

I have often thought that for anyone above the condition of an automatic laboring machine, *the loss of hearing was infinitely more of a loss than that of an arm or a leg.*

The man with an artificial leg is mentally ready for anything that may crop up, but when speech is in order, and how much of the current business of life has to be transacted in this way, he is left out in the cold, no matter how keen may be his observation or how bright may be his intelligence, when dealing with matter that comes to him otherwise than by the ear.

Sincerely, yours,

CHARLES SMART,
Major and Surgeon, U. S. Army.

Lieut. W. P. HOGARTY,
U. S. Army (retired).

As Dr. Smart is himself a sufferer from partial deafness gives added weight to his opinion.

The following, taken from the pen of another, and expressing the consentient opinion of mankind on this terrible disability, is also submitted:

The misery caused by the loss of hearing can not be described. What innumerable sources of enjoyment are closed to the deaf. They are sufferers who wander through life, objects of pity and compassion, their lives in constant danger, condemned to a solitary existence all the more terrible from the life and animation around them; seen, but unheard. And even when the loss of hearing is but partial, the affliction is scarcely less severe. As the blind can not realize the pleasure derived from the sense of sight, so the totally deaf often can not comprehend their loss as do those whose hearing is but partially impaired, and who can hear just well enough to know that there is much said and done around them of which they can get but a very imperfect knowledge.

Indeed, the greater amount of *misery caused* by the loss of hearing is seen in the case of those *persons who can hear when spoken to* from a short distance, or in a loud

tone of voice, but who are yet unable to hear what is said by one friend to another in ordinary conversation, and who are shut off entirely from all enjoyments of public speaking, lectures, concerts, the theater, the opera, and the church; in fact, all those elevating, emotional, and intellectual enjoyments which come through the organ of sound.

To show that the bill for Capt. Hogarty's relief is not without precedent, the following partial list of officers who have received promotion in the manner petitioned for is submitted:

Albert W. Preston, promoted from captain to colonel. (*See* Senate Report No. 409, Forty-fourth Congress.

Thomas E. Maley, promoted from captain to lieutenant-colonel. (*See* Senate Report No. 634, Forty-fourth Congress.)

John Pulford, promoted from lieutenant to colonel. (*See* Senate Report No. 682, Forty-fourth Congress.)

Joseph Conrad, promoted from captain to colonel. (*See* Senate Report No. 896, Forty-sixth Congress.)

Samuel Ross, promoted from lieutenant to brigadier-general.

Charles G. Freudenburgh, promoted from captain to lieutenant-colonel.

Samuel W. Crawford, promoted from colonel to brigadier-general.

The report of the committee in each of the above cases state as sufficient cause for granting the promotion asked:

That the injuries received more completely incapacitate and disqualified these officers from engaging in any business or occupation whatever than would the *loss of an arm or a leg.*

Congress, by subsequent legislation, still further recognized the justice of promoting officers on the retired list in certain cases.

Under the act approved September 29, 1890, any officer of the Army below the rank of brigadier-general, who was senior of his rank when retired, in the event of a vacancy existing in the next grade above him, was immediately promoted on the retired list to the next higher grade. This law was also *retroactive* and carried promotion to those who were *retired five years previously.*

Under the operation of this law several officers were promoted on the retired list; as, for instance, Lewis Merril was promoted under it from the rank of major to that of lieutenant-colonel. George W. Kingsbury was also promoted under it from the grade of lieutenant to the full rank of captain.

The case of Lieut. Henry H. Bellas, promoted under it, merits a moment's consideration as it shows more fully the operations of this law, and defines by analogy, more clearly, the equities involved in Capt. Hogarty's case.

Henry H. Bellas was commissioned in the Army from civil life October 1, 1873 (*nine years after the close of the late war, and thirteen years after Capt. Hogarty had entered the military service of the United States in 1861*). *Five years after his retirement, Lieut. Bellas was promoted under this law to the full rank of captain, mounted.*

Congress passed another law, approved October 1, 1890, under which all officers below the rank of major, who were seniors of their grades when retired, were promoted on the retired list to the next higher grade. This law differed from the preceding one in being nonretroactive, and in confining its benefits to officers below the rank of major. Under its operations between 50 and 100 officers have been promoted on the retired list. As this law is still in full force, and continuous in its operations, that number is constantly being increased.

Another case of recent promotion on the retired list, occurring under this law, requires a moment's consideration, as showing more fully its operations.

Douglass A. Howard was commissioned in the Army as a second lieutenant, June 14, 1878 (*about seventeen years after Capt. Hogarty entered the Army*). He was retired June 14, 1892, on account of disability, occasioned by disease contracted while serving in the Ordnance Corps, one of the most coveted and least dangerous departments of the noncombative branches of the military service. Immediately upon his retirement he was promoted on the retired list to the full rank of captain, mounted.

When Capt. Hogarty was retired he was the senior of his grade, and a vacancy existed in the next grade above him, to which he should have been promoted, but instead was retired without the promotion justly his due.

Surely those officers who served creditably during the war and became disabled by battle wounds should not be regarded as less deserving of just and equitable treatment than is thus freely accorded officers who have entered service since the war; who have served only in time of peace?

As this last-mentioned general law, like the act of July 28, 1866, did not cover all deserving and meritorious cases, several special acts of Congress were passed for the relief of officers claiming equitable consideration, of which the following are submitted as illustrations:

George M. Wheeler was retired on the rank of captain June, 1888. By special act of Congress, approved September 27, 1890, he was promoted on the retired list to the full rank of major (*see* Senate Report No. 923, Fifty-first Congress). Maj. Wheeler entered the service in 1866, after the close of the late war. He was placed on the retired list on account of disease contracted in time of peace while an officer of the Engineer Corps.

Thomas W. Lord was also promoted on the retired list, by special act of Congress, from the grade of lieutenant to the full rank of captain (*see* Report H. R. No. 546, Fiftieth Congress.)

Capt. Lord enlisted in the volunteer service July 21, 1862, more than a year later than Capt. Hogarty did. He was commissioned in the Army at the same time and in the same grade with Capt. Hogarty. At the battle of Chancellorsville, Va., Lieut. Lord loss one leg and was severely disabled in the other, but was nevertheless continued in active service for nearly eighteen years, doing duty with his regiment on the frontiers, until he had attained the grade of first lieutenant, when he was retired on that grade and subsequently promoted on the retired list by special act of Congress to the full rank of captain, as stated.

The report of the committee in Lord's case assigns as a sufficient cause for his promotion after retirement "that had his retirement been delayed he would have attained in active service the rank of captain." Promotion would have come to Capt. Hogarty in like manner had he been accorded like consideration; but as it was refused him on account of his deafness, like Capt. Lord, he appeals to Congress for relief hoping to receive like favorable consideration of his appeal.

Of the total number of officers on the retired list of the Army more than sixty saw no service whatever during the late war, and were, therefore, retired on account of disabilities incurred since, in most cases the result of sickness, or other causes than battle wounds. Of this number three are now majors, *two* of whom have *received promotion on the retired list. Over thirty-five are captains, over thirteen of whom have also been promoted on the retired list.*

To a full and clear understanding of Capt. Hogarty's case it only remains necessary to give a brief synopsis of his military history.

MILITARY HISTORY.

When the President made his first call for volunteers Mr. Hogarty was a student at college. With several other fellow-students he was among the first to respond, and being accepted, was duly mustered into the service of the United States as a private soldier in Company D, Twenty-third Regiment New York Volunteers, on the 16th day of May, 1861. On the 4th day of December following he was placed on detached service with (Light) Battery B, Fourth United States Artillery, commanded by Capt. John Gibbon, and at that time forming a part of the "Iron Brigade," Army of the Potomac.

The commendable manner in which Mr. Hogarty performed each and every duty assigned him, both as a noncommissioned officer and as a private soldier, is attested by the following certificate of his battery commander, now on file in the War Department:

CAMP BARRY,
Washington, D. C., January 1, 1865.

SIR: This is to certify that William P. Hogarty, late of the Twenty-third New York Volunteers, served in my Company B, Fourth U. S. Artillery, from December 4, 1861, to December 13, 1862, when he was discharged on account of wounds received at the battle of Fredericksburg, Va., December 13, 1862.

Mr. Hogarty *distinguished himself while under my command for intelligence, industry, and close attention to duty, and for extreme gallantry at the battles of Antietam and Fredericksburg, Va.*

I take special pleasure in recommending him to your favorable consideration.

He not being a member of my company, though doing duty with it as a noncommissioned officer, I was not permitted to recommend him for a commission in the regular Army as his merits eminently deserved.

Trusting that he may now receive those marks of appreciation from the Government which *his bravery and high moral character entitles him,*

I have the honor to be, general, very respectfully your obedient servant,

JAMES STEWART,
Brevet Captain, Fourth U. S. Artillery, Commanding Battery.

The ADJUTANT-GENERAL, U. S. ARMY.

This certificate of Maj. Stewart, who commanded Mr. Hogarty's battery, evidences that by *extreme gallantry* in *two of the bloodiest battles of the war* Mr. Hogarty had earned and was justly entitled to a commission in the mounted service of the regular Army, the attainment of which was denied him solely because he was a volunteer, although doing duty at the time with regular troops in which he distinguished himself for bravery and exemplary conduct, winning the Congressional Medal of Honor for distinguished gallantry in two battles, and in which he was severely wounded, loosing an arm.

W. P. Hogarty participated in all the battles, marches, and campaigns in which his battery was engaged, never being absent from duty at any time or for any cause.

The following is a partial list of the numerous battles in which he took part.

Engagement at Falls Church, Va., 1862.
Capture of Falmouth, Va., April, 1862.
Battle of Rappahannock Station, August 21 to 23, 1862.
Battle of Sulphur Springs, Va., August 24, 1862.
Battle of Gainesville, Va., August 28, 1862.
Battle of Groveton, Va., August 29, 1862.
Battle of Bull Run, Va. (second), August 30, 1862.
Battle of South Mountain, Md., September 14, 1862.
Battle of Antietam, Md., September 16, 1862.
Battle of Antietam, Md., September 17, 1862.
Battle of Fredericksburg, Va., December 13, 1862.

In the last-named battle he was severely wounded, loosing his left arm at the shoulder by a cannon ball, and on account of this wound he was discharged the service January 29, 1863.

W. P. Hogarty was commissioned second lieutenant, Twenty-first Regiment Veteran Reserve Corps, January 30, 1865, and immediataly placed in command of Company K, the command of which he retained until the regimental organization was broken up at the close of the war.

He was shortly afterwards assigned to duty at Louisville, Ky., serving at the headquarters of Bvt. Brig. Gen. C. H. Fredricks, from which he was transferred to special duty at the headquarters of Maj. Gen. Jeff. C. Davis, commanding the military district of Kentucky.

He was mustered out of the volunteer service October 16, 1866, having been previously appointed second lieutenant, Forty-fifth U. S. Infantry, to date from July 28, 1866.

Immediately after his appointment he was placed on recruiting service at Covington, Ky., and, at the same time, placed in command of a detachment of troops stationed at that point.

Upon the organization of his regiment he was placed in command of Company E of his regiment, from which he was afterwards relieved and placed in command of Company H and the post of Pulaski, Tenn., the command of which he retained until the post was abandoned. He was then returned to the command of his own company, with which he was shortly afterwards ordered to Chattanooga, Tenn., where he was placed in command of that post.

He was relieved from the command of his company and the post of Chattanooga, Tenn., by orders from the War Department and again assigned to duty at the headquarters of Maj. Gen. Jeff. C. Davis, commanding the military district of Kentucky.

Among the many duties assigned to Capt. Hogarty while serving at the headquarters of Gen. Davis, was the capturing of guerrillas and desperadoes who at that time infested the State; a service more hazardous in its nature, more dangerous in its execution, subjecting him to greater hardships and exposure to the severest weather at the most inclement seasons of the year; demanding the exercise of greater energy, skill, and discretion than would the command of a company of troops in the field, and in every respect as important as any duty assigned to any officer on similar detached service holding the rank of captain. While in the performance of these duties Capt. Hogarty's deafness was contracted as shown by the certificate of Capt. Levi F. Burnett, also by the records of the retiring board in Capt. Hogarty's case.

The efficient manner in which Capt. Hogarty performed these delicate and dangerous duties is fully attested by the following statements of Gens. John Ely and Jeff. C. Davis, in a communication to the War Department and now on file therein.

OFFICE OF THE CHIEF SUPERINTENDENT, STATE OF KENTUCKY,
Louisville, Ky.

Lieut. Hogarty has been under my command since July, 1865. *He is an intelligent, efficient, and gallant officer*, and in every respect well qualified to fill with credit to himself and honor to the service a higher position than he seeks.

JOHN ELY,
Brevet Brigadier-General, U. S. Volunteers, Chief Superintendent.

HEADQUARTERS MILITARY DISTRICT OF KENTUCKY.

Respectfully forwarded, approved, and highly recommended. Lieut. Hogarty is intelligent, efficient, and in every respect well qualified for the position he seeks. *He has been rendering gallant and signal service arresting guerrillas and desperadoes in different parts of the State.*

JEFF. C. DAVIS,
Brevet Major-General, Commanding.

Evidence of the efficiency wherewith Capt. Hogarty discharged the duties which devolved upon him might be easily multiplied, but only this additional testimony is submitted.

In a letter to Maj. Gen. O. O. Howard, dated Louisville, Ky., September 28, 1866 (now in the possession of Capt. Hogarty), Gen. Ely says: "*Capt. Hogarty is one of the best officers on duty in the State.*"

On account of exposure while in the discharge of these duties Capt. Hogarty's deafness was contracted, as is fully set forth in the report of the retiring board in his case. His deafness rapidly increasing as a result of continued exposure while in the discharge of these duties, he was given a 6-months' leave of absence on surgeon's certificate of disability with permission to visit Europe for special treatment.

In this connection it might be proper to mention that Capt. Hogarty has been under the most eminent aurists in both Europe and America, but without having received any material benefit.

Upon the expiration of his leave he rejoined his regiment and was shortly afterwards ordered with his company to Union, W. Va., where upon the consolidation of his regiment with the Fourteenth U. S. Infantry, he was placed on waiting orders, and immediately assigned to duty on the frontier in the command of recruits crossing the plains, in the performance of which duty his deafness was still further increased.

When Capt. Hogarty was placed on waiting orders he was the senior officer of his grade in both his own and the regiment with which his was consolidated, and a vacancy existed in the next grade above him caused by the death of Lieut. James K. Warden to which he should have been immediately promoted, but instead he was placed on duty on the frontier, as stated, performing duty equal in every respect to the command of a company, which subjected him to greater hardships and exposure, still further increasing his deafness.

That Capt. Hogarty's *deafness and not the loss of his arm* was the *direct cause* of his having been removed from line of promotion, and subsequently retired, thereby deprived of promotion fully earned and clearly his due, is shown by the fact that two officers of his regiment, both junior to him in rank, each of whom had lost an arm, Lieut. W. W. Bowers having lost his right arm, and Lieut. George E. Judd his left, were, nevertheless, continued in active service and in line of promotion.

A notable related fact in this connection merits a moment's consideration as showing the unfortunate discrimination Capt. Hogarty has had to endure because of his numerous, and unprecedentedly severe disabilities.

When he was relieved from duty with his regiment and placed on waiting orders he was, as stated, the senior of his grade, standing at the head of the list, while Lieut. Judd, of his regiment, was his junior, standing at the foot of the list. Lieut. Judd is now a captain on the retired list, promoted thereon since his retirement, while Capt. Hogarty still remains in the grade of second lieutenant.

As evidence that the War Department itself regarded Capt. Hogarty's deafness as a greater disability than the loss of his arm is shown by the fact that, at the time he was relieved from line of promotion, a number of vacancies existed in the Army in his grade which could not otherwise be filled, to which he asked to be assigned, but was refused assignment on account of his deafness. He subsequently asked to be assigned to duty as military instructor at civil colleges, but his request

was again refused, the Adjutant-General of the Army assigning as the only cause for refusal that his deafness too completely incapacitated him for the duties. It should not be forgotten that Capt. Hogarty's deafness was contracted and increased to its present extent while an officer of the Army, and while performing the duties of a captain, mounted.

As evidence that the Government recognizes that Capt. Hogarty has fully earned the rank of captain is shown by the fact that he has been brevetted three times, and to the rank of captain, for gallant and meritorious conduct in battle. He was brevetted first lieutenant for "gallant and meritorious services at the battle of Fredericksburg, Va." He was again brevetted first lieutenant and captain for "gallant and meritorious conduct during the war." (*See* Official Army Register for 1894, p. 323.) In addition thereto he has been awarded the "Congressional medal of honor" for "distinguished gallantry at the battles of Antietam and Fredericksburg, Va.," authorized by act of Congress to be conferred upon those officers, noncommissioned officers, and privates who have most distinguished themselves in action. (*See* Official Army Register for 1894, p. 325.)

The Military Committee of the House of Representatives of the Fifty-second Congress, recognizing the fact that Capt. Hogarty was the senior of his grade when removed from line of promotion, and that he should then have been promoted to the vacancy existing in the grade above him, but overlooking strong equitable claim to promotion to the rank of captain, mounted, dating back to the act of July 28, 1866, which promoted officers to the rank of command held when disabled, under which he bases his claim to promotion, as his deafness, contracted while performing the duties of a captain, mounted, is proven to be a greater disability than the loss of an arm or a leg, unanimously recommended his promotion to the grade of first lieutenant. It becomes necessary, therefore, to examine into the status of the grade of lieutenant of the Army, as established by Congress, to ascertain if full and complete justice would be done Capt. Hogarty by such promotion.

In the first place there is no difference in rank between the grades of second and first lieutenants. Promotion from the grade of second to that of first lieutenant in no way increases an officer's rank, or in any way changes his status as an officer, as he is still a lieutenant. Their duties are the same, differing only in precedence in command. Their *allowances are identical in every respect.* Lieutenants of the Army, although officers, *have no rank;* they are merely subaltern. The *lowest* grade in the Army *having rank* is that of *captain.*

The grade of second lieutenant belongs only to military organizations having battalion formations. For this reason there are no second lieutenants in the Medical Corps of the Army, though that branch of the service has the grade of lieutenant. The same is true of the Signal Corps. The grade of second lieutenant has recently been abolished in the Ordnance Corps, as that Corps has no battalion formation, and is retained in the Engineer Corps because that Corps has a battalion formation.

There is little difference between the pay of a second and that of a first lieutenant. On the retired list it amounts to only $75 per year. The pay of a second lieutenant of cavalry is the same as that of a first lieutenant of infantry. The difference between the pay of a first lieutenant and that of a captain on the retired list is $300 per annum, while the difference between the pay of a captain of infantry and that of a major on the retired list is $525 per year.

Under section 9 of the act of March 3, 1853, Congress itself has established that there is virtually no difference between the grades of second and first lieutenants, as that act says, "A lieutenant of engineers and ordnance shall, after fourteen years' service, be promoted to the rank of captain." Thus, in computing service under this law, time served as a second lieutenant counts the same as that served as a first. In fact, should an officer serve the whole term of fourteen years as a second lieutenant, he would immediately be promoted under this law to the full rank of captain, passing over the grade of first lieutenant as though the grades of second and first lieutenants were one.

The above law has been recently reaffirmed in the case of lieutenants of the Signal Service under the act approved October 1, 1890, which also promotes them to the rank of captain, mounted, after fourteen years' service.

Under the act of June 23, 1874, all lieutenants of the Medical Corps of the Army, after five years' service, are promoted to the rank of captain, mounted.

It is also to be observed that the chaplains of the Army while in active service receive the pay of a lieutenant only, but immediately upon their retirement receive the rank and retired pay of a captain. This also is clearly promotion on the retired list.

In view of the foregoing it will be seen that the passage of the amended House bill for the promotion of Capt. Hogarty to the grade of first lieutenant, as recommended by the House Military Committee, would virtually afford him no relief, as it in no way increases his rank, while the difference in the amount of pay he would receive is so small and so out of proportion to the difference in pay between the other grades of the service it would scarcely justify the time and trouble consumed in its passage.

In the case of the foregoing class of officers of the noncombatant departments of the Army, viz, the chaplains, the doctors, the lieutenants of the Engineer Corps, of the Ordnance Corps, and of the Signal Corps, who receive promotion as a result of *length of service*, as also in regular order as a result of seniority, their duties being more in harmony with civil avocations, they can, when retired, readily adjust their professional knowledge and skill acquired in the military service to civil pursuits. But in the case of those officers of the fighting arms of the service whose lives have been devoted to the study and the practice of the art of war, there is no place in civil pursuits where their acquirements in this particular can find employment. Especially is it so in the case of those officers disabled in the service to the extent Capt. Hogarty has been.

As Capt. Hogarty was an officer of infantry when retired, it may be asked are there precedents for giving him the rank of captain, *mounted?* A brief reference to the official Army Register for 1894 will show that there are.

W. S. Johnson was a second lieutenant in the Twenty-fourth U. S. Infantry. When he was retired he was promoted on the retired list to the full rank of captain, mounted.

Charles T. Green was a captain in the Forty-second U. S. Infantry. When retired he also was promoted on the retired list to the rank of captain, mounted.

W. R. Smedberg was a captain in the Fourteenth U. S. Infantry. When retired he likewise was promoted on the retired list to the full rank of captain, mounted.

As Capt. Hogarty served during the war in one of the most distinguished batteries, *if not the most distinguished battery*, in the Union Army, in which he lost an arm, and in which he won the Congressional medal of honor for distinguished gallantry in two of the bloodiest battles of the war, Antietam, and Fredericksburg, Va., and in which he earned a commission in the regular *mounted service*, as shown by the letter of Maj. Stewart, but which was refused him because he was a volunteer; and for services in which he has been *brevetted three times and to the rank of captain*, and inasmuch as, while *performing the duties of a captain, mounted*, while on detached duty capturing guerrillas and desperadoes he contracted *another and still greater disability*, more severe, more disabling, and more totally incapacitating him from engaging in any civil pursuit or occupation whatever, would not the ends of justice and equity be more fully served by permitting his case to follow the precedents established in the cases of Capts. Smedberg, Green, Johnson, and others?

In support of the measure now pending in Congress for Capt. Hogarty's relief, the following letters and indorsements, given him by the officers themselves and now in his possession, are submitted:

NEW YORK CITY, *December 29, 1880.*

I most cordially indorse the advancement of those lieutenants of the Army as have lost a limb in the service of their country and have been retired. Shut out from promotion as they are by their retirement, and disabled for life in the service of their country, I would like to see them advanced a grade for each ten years of their lives.

U. S. GRANT.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *March 30, 1880.*

I certainly favor any increased compensation to crippled officers; therefore approve this measure.

W. T. SHERMAN,
General.

I cheerfully indorse what Gen. Sherman says in this matter.

ALEX. RAMSEY,
Secretary of War.

CHICAGO, *October 25, 1880.*

I fully coincide with the honorable Secretary of War and the General of the Army.

P. H. SHERIDAN,
Lieutenant-General.

GOVERNORS ISLAND, N. Y., *December 29, 1880.*

I fully concur with the views of the General of the Army hereon.

W. S. HANCOCK,
Major-General.

PHILADELPHIA, PA., *November 2, 1881.*

MY DEAR SIR: In the English army and navy officers retired on account of age, as a rule, are given one step in rank. This principle might well be applied to all lieutenants of the Army who have lost an arm or a leg, and would meet with hearty approval throughout the military service.

In the hope your bill may receive the favorable action of Congress,

Believe me, very truly, yours,

E. UPTON,
Brevet Major-General, U. S. Army.

Lieut. W. P. HOGARTY,
U. S. Army (retired).

29 WEST SEVENTEENTH STREET, NEW YORK.

Lieut. W. P. HOGARTY,
U. S. Army (retired):

DEAR SIR: Your bill is an excellent one and ought to pass.

Yours truly,

ABNER DOUBLEDAY,
Colonel U. S. Army, Brevet Major-General.

WAR DEPARTMENT, PAYMASTER-GENERAL'S OFFICE,
Washington, D. C., February 15, 1892.

To whom it may concern:

Since 1867 I have known Lieut. W. P. Hogarty, then an officer of the Forty-fifth Infantry. He was retired in 1871, by reason of loss of left arm from wounds received in line of duty. Except for his wounds he would undoubtedly be on the active list as a captain at this time. Retired as a consequence of gallant conduct, he now asks to be placed where he would stand had he not been incapacitated by wounds. His zeal and efficiency as an officer are undoubted. It would be a grateful recognition due conspicuous merit to give this officer the reward he seeks.

To the many conspicuous names given in commendation of Lieut. Hogarty I most cheerfully add mine.

WM. SMITH,
Paymaster-General, U. S. Army.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

WM. P. HOGARTY

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 109.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARCH 5, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Indian Affairs and ordered to be printed.

The VICE-PRESIDENT presented the following

LETTER FROM THE COMMISSIONERS OF THE CHOCTAW NATION CONCERNING THE TRIBAL RELATIONS AND TENURE OF LANDS OF SAID NATION.

CHOCTAW NATION, MCALESTER, IND. T.,
February 17, 1894.

Hon. ADLAI E. STEVENSON,
President of the U. S. Senate, Washington, D. C.:

SIR: We, as commissioners on the part of the Choctaw tribe of Indians, being fully advised as to the opinions and wishes of our people concerning any change in our tribal relations and the tenure of our lands, and feeling that we have been misrepresented by a lobby at Washington, and knowing that a systematic movement is in progress which for its object has the ultimate confiscation of our lands, now consider it our duty to make known the facts.

By solemn and binding treaties with the Government of the United States we and our fathers were possessed of the lands we occupy. When the white man settled among our people, and upon our old territory east of the Mississippi River, we surrendered valuable territory in exchange for what, at that time, was almost a wilderness. No people ever gave greater consideration for a purchase than did these Indians for the soil which the covetous boomer now seeks to make his own. Many of our numbers well remember the day when they bade farewell to their lands east of the Mississippi, knowing that the word of a great nation was pledged to protect them and their descendants in the undisturbed possession of their future home.

We feel and believe that to change the conditions which now exist among us, to allot our lands, to inaugurate statehood, to throw our territory open for the prey of the element which lately populated the "Strip" in a single day, would work destruction to us as a people. We believe, further, that the Indians, unable to cope with the white man in the barter and trade of his possessions, would soon be defrauded of that which they now own in common; that they would become impoverished, separated from each other, crowded from their present quarters, and finally annihilated. We are, therefore, in refusing the overtures of a friendly commission, prompted by that first law of nature, self-preservation.

We assert to be false the statement that Indian blood is becoming extinct. Fifty per cent of our people can not speak the English lan-

guage, and not a drop of Caucasian blood courses through their veins. We denounce motives which prompt men to contend that after a generation has passed away the compacts of a nation are no longer binding, and that land sold to a people should not descend to their heirs, even though a provision to that effect be stipulated in the contract. There certainly can be no division of opinion in holding that nation barbarous whose treaty with a smaller power are written in sand, to be obliterated when a few passing years have made of some value the property guaranteed the weaker nation.

We deny that we have made concessions to the boomer, which should estop us in the management and control of our lands, and we assert that those who to-day clamor for statehood are known as the intruders, who have entered upon our lands without permission, and in many instances defy our local laws and regulations; and yet they make demands that all power to enforce the law be placed in the U. S. court for the Indian Territory, to be operated and controlled by them.

THE EXPENSE OF U. S. COURTS.

These courts were established by Congress and without the Indians asking, and over the protest of some of the tribes. They are of no particular or exclusive benefit to the Indians. Undoubtedly they were established and are maintained for the protection and benefit of the white people among us, and while we do not object to their presence and continuance, we do say that it is unfair to establish these courts here to right the wrongs of the white man and deal justice to all, and then, because they entail a heavy expense use that as an argument to break a solemn treaty. This leads us to another kindred subject, to wit, the increase of jurisdiction of the U S. court in the Indian Territory.

We are opposed to any further increase in the jurisdiction of the U. S. court in the Indian Territory. The objects of courts is justice, and we believe that that end is more apt to be attained in Judge Parker's court at Fort Smith, Ark., and Judge Brant's court at Paris, Tex., than in the U. S. courts within our borders, for the following reasons:

First. The jurors of the Fort Smith and Paris courts are, with but few exceptions, bona fide residents of the district; they are landowners; they have their permanent homes, and, being property owners, are interested in the promotion of justice by the first law of nature—self-preservation. These qualities are necessary in jurors, and in all cases of notorious miscarriage of justice by a jury an examination of the personnel of that jury will disclose a ruling per cent of it to have been of men who owned no land or had no permanent home in the district. In the very nature of things the noncitizen jurors of the U. S. courts in the Indian Territory are lacking in these qualities. They have no permanent home; they own no land; by Choctaw law they are limited in the amount of stock they own, and if their love of gain causes them to acquire property and hold the same contrary to Choctaw law this very disregard of law unfits them for jurors. What is said of the jurors is, considering their superior intellectual and moral training, true of the judges of these several courts, with this additional weight that, whereas the judges at Fort Smith and Paris are appointed for life, the judge for the U. S. court in the Indian Territory is appointed for four years only.

Second. The Indians would have to become citizens of the United States before they could sit as jurors in criminal cases, and if this were

done it would bring about a prejudice among mixed juries, which would result in mistrials and would be continually degenerating into mere bias of opinion based upon the nationality of the litigants.

Third. If the United States will not keep her solemn obligations, if the saving of a few dollars every year weighs more with the U. S. officials than the breach in the honor and common honesty of any nation as a result of breaking treaties; if, when U. S. officers hold up their right hands and take their oath of office, calling a just God to bear witness to the purity of their intentions, they have a secret or mental reservation that Indian treaties are not a part of the laws of the United States; if these assertions are true, then we say let her strike us openly; strike us above the belt, and not come as Joab did to Amasa, and put her judicial arm around us and with prejudiced and interested jurors send us to the gallows and to the penitentiary with the ultimate view of securing our lands.

In reply to the assertions that the welfare of the Indians is the ultimate object of these negotiations, we call attention not to our own progressive condition, but the absolute destitute condition, both morally and financially, of the Choctaws in Mississippi and Louisiana, who took lands in severalty and remained under the soothing and sustaining influences of the whites. They are to-day without schools, without homes, and yet they are in the very center of civilization. Again, the United States has treated during its existence with Indians from Narragansett Bay to the everglades of Florida and from the Atlantic to the Pacific; these treaties have included millions and multiplied millions of acres of land; they have changed the homes and manner of holding their lands of thousands of Indians, and yet we defy you to show us as a result of these negotiations a tribe of Indians where real progress, as regards personal property, in education, contentment, and religion is considered, to be compared with the Five Civilized Tribes, as they are called. But it is stated that the object is to fix our lands in severalty, so that we can never be robbed. We say: "That is all right, but you rob us in your very exertions." Besides, there is no lameness in our present patent. The patent is all right, and if the honor of the United States is unable protect it, why attempt to seduce us by saying that the United States will protect 14,000 patents among individuals? When we become citizens of the United States and take our lands and our individual patents for the same and are 21 years of age, and of sound and disposing mind, and sell our lands to a white man, the courts of the United States will confirm that sale, "all rot and bosh in preceding negotiations to the contrary notwithstanding," and sell their lands, is just what the average Indian will do and ten years will find them houseless and homeless.

We recognize the fact that Congress may, by legislation, abrogate a treaty; but we do not think that any Congress will so far forget its moral obligations as to do it, especially the treaties with the Five Civilized Tribes. Whenever the Senate of the United States is composed of Senators who will ruthlessly and because their conditions entail pecuniary expense nullify our treaties, the end will have come not only to the Indians but to the United States, and we will simply go down together. In other words, the honor and integrity of Congress is our only safeguard, and when these fail, we fail; these stand, we stand.

We have a patent to our lands; the words and meaning of this patent are so plain, the promises of our treaty are so full, that the absolute legal right is on the side of the Choctaws. The power of the United States and her ability to keep these present promises are so ample that

we, as Choctaws, would not be acting with proper prudence if we agreed to other treaties and other smoother promises. In other words, what respect or confidence can we have in any promises that can be made to us when the very intent of those promises is to undo most solemn obligations entered into years ago?

The history of the Anglo-Saxon in America for four hundred years, where the Indians and their lands were concerned, is one of deception, robbery, and murder. Descendants partake of the predominating characteristics of their ancestors. The love of land is so strong in the Anglo-Saxon that when he views it, it at once becomes the promised lands and he must secure it.

We come now to that hardest of all our positions to be understood by the white man, viz: Our opposition to land in severalty. At a glance it seems little less than absurd for an Indian to refuse to have pointed out to him, by proper metes and bounds, land on which he may stand and say "by justice and law this is my own;" that he would be absolutely opposed to an individual patent so that he might rent, lease, or sell his land as he may see fit. Now, bear with us a little longer, and we will give you a few reasons why Indians are opposed to lands in severalty.

Every Indian tribe from time immemorial has held its land in common, and whether this be the result of race preference or race inactivity is immaterial. It is a fact, and hence it is bred and born in the present Indians, whether full-blood or half-breed or even where they have only one-sixteenth Indian blood. Considering this inbred trait with that other dominating characteristic of the Indian—firmness, in many amounting to stubbornness—you have a combination that can not be moved. It is no idle word or boast when the Indian says that he is opposed to land in severalty or sectionizing. You may call on him to divide his personal property; you may demand of him that he shall work instead of hunt; you may require him to educate his children, yea, you may fetter him with all the obligations of civilization, and he will submit, but whenever you touch his "land in common" he will meet you with all the opposition in his power.

Again, the Indian is opposed to a change in his present form of government, because it will inevitably lead to a change in the manner of holding his land. He knows that the breaking up of tribal relations means sectionization. In short, the *summum bonum* of all government, the dearest idol known to him in all politics, is land in common. But there are reasons acquired under the influences of civilization which impel the Indian to oppose any change in our present tribal relations. The history of all Indian tribes who have allotted their lands has been the same; the Indian got allotment and the deed, and the white man soon got the land. We cite only the Choctaws in Mississippi and the Delawares now in the Cherokee Nation.

Again, if land in severalty is the panacea for all the Indians' ills, why is it that the five civilized tribes are better off morally, socially, and financially than any other Indians of to-day? We are doing well; we are progressing; we are pressing on to a higher education; we are following in the way of progress. Why not let us alone? Has it come to this, that the honor and honesty of the United States weighs nothing when placed in the balance opposite money appropriated to preserve, not only a treaty, but to promote common justice?

Again, we are opposed to land in severalty because it will be the sword that will cut the Gordian knot—holding our lands in common. When a white man touches a part he touches the whole. No part of

our land can be taken without the consent of Congress and the President, and we are intelligent enough to see that Congress, the President, and the Supreme Court of the United States are no mean barriers to have between us and the rapacious boomer. We know that men must have a higher sense of absolute justice, even though it be between the strong and the weak, to attain either of these offices. Scallawag politicians and boomers don't reach the Presidency, the Supreme Bench, or the Senate; and while by accident now and then one may draw his pay as a member of the lower House, still he is an unknown factor in its legislation. But if we take our lands in severalty all will be changed.

That old adage "united we stand, divided we fall" is truer of the Indians than any race on the earth to-day. And why? Because as soon as the Indian receives his individual patent to his land the white man will be there with his money in one hand, whisky in the other, and soon the trade will be consummated. Then will come up the rights of property before a "boomer jury," and if the Indian escapes without being sent to the penitentiary he will be lucky. It is the little foxes that eat up the grapes. The taking of one Indian's individual land will not create any commotion or surprise and hence in a few years, by purchases fair or foul, by overreaching, by absolute bulldozing, as in the case of the Delawares in Kansas, the land will be all in the hands of the whites. Another thing, when you confine an Indian to a certain tract and all the tracts adjoining him are owned by the whites, this will be sufficient reason for the Indian to sell and go and live on a tract with some other Indian. This is absolutely what did happen when the Choctaws took land in severalty in Mississippi. We ask you, who press allotment on us, how will you cure this evil?

Again, while land in severalty carries with it individuality, citizenship, etc., it carries with it also, selfishness; that is "I have my own and will have to look after it and you must do the same." In other words, "All things have changed and I am no longer my brother's keeper."

Under our present Government the educated and most intelligent Indian must in times of danger come to the front and protect the nation because his part is involved and, hence, "land in common" appeals to the strongest powers known to human nature, viz, self-preservation and self-interest, and the nobler instinct, that we that are strong ought to help those that are weak. The boomer may say that under our present system a few Indians are growing rich and the full-blood is left; but we tell you that when it comes to genuine charity, the helping of a man because he is our brother, that the example set by Indians who have property (because an examination will show we have no rich men in the sense the word rich is used now in the United States) could well be imitated by the white man.

As a matter of fact, to-day an Indian in trouble or distress can not only appeal for, but will receive, assistance from another Indian, whereas a white man under similar circumstances going to another well-to-do he would not only be refused but would be extremely lucky if he was not started from the premises by the toe of the boot with the further assistance of the bulldog in the front yard; and we claim that this disposition to help one another is nurtured and developed in us by our system of holding our lands in common. And finally, if you find that we have stated facts, if you find after proper investigation that our treaties, our social, moral, and financial conditions are as we have stated, and that history and *past experience* show that land in sever-

alty has proven a curse and not a boon to the Indian, we ask of you to so report, and not practically say to us that we have no right to open our mouths, because if we do speak and speak the truth, and you don't listen to it and are not governed by it, then you have literally denied us the right to be heard.

Justice as against rapacity, patience as against ruthless force, and humanity as our common bond, is our last request.

GREEN MCCURTAIN, *Chairman*,
H. C. HARRIS,
JNO. P. TURNBULL,
JAMES DYER,
G. W. DUKES,
JOE EVERIDGE,
SAMSON HOLSON,
MITCHELL HARRISON,
JNO. M. HARRISON,
J. D. WILSON,
JOSIAH GARDNER,
N. B. AINSWORTH,
AMOS HUMP, *Secretary*,
Choctaw Commissioners.

AN ACT providing for the appointment of commissioners on the part of Choctaw Nation to attend an international council of Five Nations of Indian Territory and to meet the United States commissioners.

Be it enacted by the general council of the Choctaw Nation assembled, That the principal chief, by and with the advice and consent of the senate, shall appoint and commission twelve commissioners, four from each district in addition to the present delegate, who are hereby directed and instructed to meet and confer with similar commissioners from Cherokee, Chickasaw, Creeks, and Seminole nations, in an international council, and said commissioners are hereby instructed to enter against any dissolution of our present tribal relations or tenure of our lands.

SEC. 2. That a copy of said protest shall be sent to the President of the United States, also the presiding officers of both Houses of the Congress of the United States, the principal chief and delegate of the Choctaw Nation and the United States commissioners.

SEC. 3. That the said commissioners are hereby further instructed to meet the United States commissioners and receive any propositions that they may have to present, and to transmit a copy of such propositions to the principal chief.

SEC. 4. That said commissioners shall receive, each, five dollars per day for each day of actual services and ten cents per mile for each mile traveled going to and returning from said international council and United States commissioners, except the regular delegate, and the national auditor shall issue his warrants upon the presentation of certificates issued by the principal chief, and the national treasurer shall pay the same.

SEC. 5. That this act take effect and be in force from and after its passage.

Approved January 26, 1894.

W. N. JONES,
P. C. C. N.

I hereby certify that the foregoing is a true and correct copy from the original act of the general council in special session, and approved January 26, 1894, now on file in my office.

Witness my hand and the great seal of the Choctaw Nation, this, the 14th day of February, A. D. 1894.

[SEAL.]

J. B. JACKSON,
National Secretary Choctaw Nation.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 110.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARCH 6, 1894.—Laid on the table and ordered to be printed.

Mr. HILL submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Whereas the Secretary of the Treasury has announced a deficit of seventy-eight million dollars for the current fiscal year; and

Whereas House of Representatives bill numbered forty-eight hundred and sixty-four, known as the Wilson bill, proposes to discard seventy-six million dollars revenue from present tariff taxes and to meet the doubled deficiency by the new internal and direct taxes: Therefore,

Resolved, That the Senate Finance Committee frame amendments to the said bill, omitting the said internal and direct taxes newly proposed and instead thereof make provision for sufficient revenue by tariffing other foreign imports and otherwise revising the tariff without creating a deficiency.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 111.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARCH 6, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. MCMILLAN presented the following

RESOLUTION:

Whereas there are now before the Senate twelve or more bills to charter new street railroad corporations or to extend existing lines in the District of Columbia: Therefore,

Resolved, That the Commissioners of the District of Columbia be, and they are hereby, directed to inform the Senate,

First. Whether any considerable number of the citizens of the District of Columbia have represented to the Commissioners that there is need of increased street railway facilities to accommodate the public; or have remonstrated against any new line;

Second. What, if any, new lines of street railways are needed in the District for the public accommodation;

Third. Whether, in case additional facilities are required, such facilities can best be obtained by chartering new companies or by requiring the extension of existing lines;

Fourth. Whether it is feasible to require a transfer of passengers between city and suburban lines, so that by the payment of a single fare a person may secure transportation from any point on one line of railway to any point on a connecting railway, within the District of Columbia.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 112.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARCH 6, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Printing and ordered to be printed.

Mr. POWER submitted the following

RESOLUTION

Providing for the printing of five thousand copies of Senate Miscellaneous Document Seventy-seven, memorial of the National Woolgrowers' Association.

Resolved by the Senate (the House of Representatives concurring), That there be printed five thousand copies of Senate Miscellaneous Document Numbered Seventy-seven, a memorial of the National Woolgrowers' Association; copies for the use of the Senate and copies for the use of the House of Representatives.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 113.

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

WEATHER BUREAU.

DETAILS OF PRECIPITATION

(RAIN AND MELTED SNOW)

AT

STATIONS IN NEBRASKA AND SOUTH DAKOTA.

MARCH 6, 1894.—Ordered printed by resolution.

WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1894.

S. Mis. 5——3

?ITATION OF RAIN AND SNOW IN NEBRASKA AND ADJOINING STATES.

ɔut few exceptions, measurements of the precipitation of rain ɾ in Nebraska and adjoining States on the western bank of the River began with the establishment of the Signal Service in hese measurements have been continued by the Weather Bu- d are now made regularly at a relatively large number of reporting to the directors of the respective State services and :al office in Washington, D. C.

er to obtain a definite knowledge of the amount of water that itated, on the average, during the year, it is essential that daily of the rainfall be kept at a number of stations, and that the ɔe continuous. Of the total number of registers kept but few e latter requirement. The table below shows the location of important registers for Nebraska during the last twenty years, has been added the record maintained at Yankton, S. Dak., l from Nebraska by the Missouri River only:

TABLE I.—*Location of important rainfall registers.*

on.	Latitude.	Longitude.	Elevation.		Authority.
			Above sea.	Gauge above ground.	
	° ′	° ′	*Feet.*	*Feet.*	
.....	42 40	102 38	*3,800	24	Wm. Waterman.
.....	42 50	100 32	2,613	26	Observers of the Weather Bureau.
.....	42 54	97 28	1,232	43	Do.
.....	42 54	97 28	1,232	43	Do.
ıcks.....	41 09	102 59	4,090	.....	U. S. Army surgeons.
.....	41 08	100 45	2,841	34	Observers of the Weather Bureau.
.....	41 26	97 43	1,584	2	Geo. S. Truman.
.....	41 28	96 03	1,100	8	Charles Seltz.
.....	41 16	95 56	1,113	76	Observers of the Weather Bureau.
.....	40 58	98 00	1,825	2	John Ellis.
.....	40 38	96 59	1,440	2	Observers of the Weather Bureau and Doane College.
.....	41 00	95 50	983	.....	H. B. Burgess and others.

* Estimated.

II contains the daily amounts of rain and melted snow d in inches and hundredths for the period during which a rec- been kept at three stations representing different portions of e, viz: Omaha on the eastern border, near Genoa; east cen- ion, and North Platte in the western portion.

study of local or seasonal variation a record of the precipita- letail is necessary, since the total for the month or year, as ;iven, affords no clue to the actual distribution of rain through-

out the growing season. The intensity of each shower, moreover, can not be determined from the monthly and annual tables. To present this important phase of the question Table III has been prepared, showing the number of days each year during which a record was kept on which the daily precipitation was from one to nineteen hundredths of an inch (0.01 to 0.19), twenty to eighty hundredths of an inch (0.20 to 0.80), and eighty-one hundredths of an inch and over (0.81 and over).

Generally rains of the first class may be considered as *inconsequential;* rains of the second class as the *useful* rains, while those of the third class are apt to wash the fields and otherwise damage growing crops, and may be called *damaging.*

It will be noticed that at a few stations the number of very light rains is not so great as at other stations in the immediate vicinity. It is believed, however, that this deficiency can be explained by the fact that the skilled observers serving at regular Weather Bureau stations pay greater attention to the measurement of precipitation in small amounts than voluntary observers near by, who have neither the time nor the appliances, in some cases, to secure a rigidly accurate measure of the lighter amounts of precipitation.

TABLE II.

Daily precipitation at Omaha, Nebr.

JANUARY.

Year.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1871												·14	·37					·02	·01						T.				T.	·01	·02	·57
1872																·06	·01			·01												·08
1873		·45			·09		·01								·05							·02	·01								·01	·64
1874			·08																	·12		·07	.05									·32
1875	·01		·02			·04		·02			·03	·03					·06										·03	·02				·26
1876	·07								·06													·09										·22
1877	·01						·05		·20		·05	.03			·19																	·53
1878			T.							T.		·38	·02					T.	·09	·04									·60			1·13
1879	T.						T.				T.				·07																	·07
1880		·03	·05		·02		·03	·01													·03	·01					·01		·71	T.		·90
1881					·16	·02	·06	·08					·02		·04	·10				T.	T.	·05	·01	·02	.01			T.	.03	T.	·01	·61
1882			T.	·22	T.		T.			·40		·02	·01		T.	·01								·01		·03				·04		·74
1883				·12			·21		T.	T.		T.				·19	·04	·30	·01	·11		·01			·02					T.		1·01
1884	·04		T.		·04	·25	T.	·02		T.								·24					T.				·14					·73
1885					·08	·11						·02		·03	·06	·04		T.				·04	T.	·02			·01					·41
1886	·01	·10	·05	·02			·04	·01						·11	·05		.04	·26		·01	T.	·01	·04		T.	·33	T.				·07	1·15
1887				·01	·04	T.	·36	·03	·02				T.	T.								T.								·02	·01	·49
1888	T.				·21	T.			·02			·34		.01																		·58
1889								·02				·12		·18	·78	·26			·31							·02	·05					1·74
1890				·05	·07						·10	·55	·21	·02	·22		·01		·08			·09	·04									1.44
1891	·17						·03		·32	T.		T.			T.						T.	T.	T.				T.	·95	.28	·02	.34	2·11
1892					·09	T.				·17	·06						·07	·03		T.											T.	·42
Per cent	32	14	23	23	41	23	41	32	23	18	18	45	23	23	41	27	27	27	23	27	9	45	27	14	14	14	27	9	18	23	27	

FEBRUARY.

1871							T.	·11	·01	T.	·12	·08					·67							·33			·02					1·34
1872		·01		·04	·06							T.			·20				·03	·08			·01						T.			·43
1873														·01						·01												·02
1874	·07				·48	·08												·01			·04	·14		·04	·06							·92
1875		·04					·03			·06					08					·01		·07	·22									·51
1876								·03	·10																		·12		·15			·40
1877							·18	·08			·03											·11	·04									·44
1878								·01	T.	·04			·02	·01			·06							T.								·14
1879										·26	·02	·07			·09	·27	·05	T.	·01					T.	·16							·93
1880				T.		T.					·10																T.	·04				·14
1881	T.	T.		·01	·69	1·64	·32		T.	T.	·10	T.		·30	·02		·01	T.					T.				T.					3·09
1882																	·01	·39		·13	·02						·04	·01				·60

NOTE.—T indicates a trace of precipitation.

Daily precipitation at Omaha, Nebr.—Continued.

FEBRUARY—Continued.

Year.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1883	·12	·05	·02			·02	·01						·54	·03	·01	·01						T.	·25	·03								1·09
1884				·43	·02	·05	·20	·10			·01	·20	·05		T.	·13	·14			·02			·04				T.		·03			1·42
1885			·07		T.		·03	·19	·03							·04	·01		T.		T.		·05	·05								·47
1886			·07						·03	·08				T.	T.				T.								·14	·04				·36
1887	T.	T.			·02	·14	·02	·17		·32			·01	·04			·05	T.			·03		·20		T.							1·00
1888				·04		·01	T.	·10		T.								·36	·23					T.	T.				T.			·74
1889				T.	·01			T.			T.			T.	T.	·21	·01				T.	T.			T.	T.						·23
1890		T.					·01												·02		·04	·14			·17	·06	·08	·02				·54
1891		·03						·32								T.			·21	·07				·02	·02		·35					1·02
1892				·07		·04	·15			·02	T.							T.	T.	T.		T.	·01	·01			·04	·20	T.			·54
Per cent	14	23	14	27	27	32	45	41	23	32	32	18	18	27	27	23	41	23	27	27	23	23	36	32	23	5	36	23	14			

MARCH.

Year.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1871		·05					T.		·01		·04		·04			·01			T.	T.										·03		·18
1872		·05	·01				·54	·22	·09					·01	·06		·01													·62		1·61
1873														·40					·04													·44
1874						·36								·22	·16	·41		·07			·24										·03	1·49
1875															·03			·27												·70	·24	1·24
1876	·31				1·06	·81				·04					·29	·10			·26			·18					·13					3·18
1877	·21		·17				·06	·02												·12									·01	·47	·20	1·26
1878	·45	·20						·88			T.	·32								·27					·02	·06	·30		·26	·33		3·09
1879		·05	T.					·68	·10				·14		·02	·23		T.		·08	·06		T.		T.			·67			·14	2·17
1880			·02	T.						·06	·03	·01	·23			T.		·12								·02	·01			T.	·50
1881		·07					·27			T.	·06	·17		·08	·05	·01									T.			·01		T.	·72
1882								T.			T.			T.					·07	·03						·68	·01				·79
1883						·06	·01													·09	·15	T.		·03	·06	·01	·07		·02	T.	·02	·52
1884	T.	·02			·16			·80		T.	·07						·17	·18		·03	·62			T.	1·03		·30	·75		T.	·78	4·91
1885					·19	·01	·05																				·04	·03	·01			·33
1886			T.	·32	·24	·02	T.				·24	T.			T.			T.	T.	·18							·03	·28		T.		1·31
1887			T.	T.	·01			T.										T.		·02	T.					·10	·30	·05	T.		T.	·48
1888	1·05		T.	·36	·01		·02	·01	·09										·71		T.			·14	·86	T.	T.		T.			3·25
1889								·01							·16	·04	·16	·16														·53
1890				·03	·10	·28	T.		·04	·04	T.			·01								·03					·71	·01			·10	1·35
1891	·01	T.	·04			·20	·10	·74			·04		T.					·55		·01	·28			·03	·09	·02	T.		·15			2·26
1892				T.		·42	·02	·01	·08						T.		T.		T.	·09	·13	·01			·01	1·07			·72	·18		2·74
Per cent	23	27	27	18	32	36	41	45	27	18	32	14	14	23	36	27	14	32	23	45	32	14	0	14	32	32	50	32	32	32	36	

APRIL.

1871	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·28	....	·95	·60	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·14	·03	....	....	....	·81	·20	·31	....	....	....	....	3·32
1872	....	....	·12	....	....	·81	·08	....	....	....	....	....	·05	....	....	....	·32	·03	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·97	1·39	·07	....	....	3·84
1873	·71	....	....	....	....	·34	....	....	·05	....	....	....	·41	·37	·30	·20	·01	....	....	....	·05	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	1·38	....	....	3·83
1874	....	....	....	·14	....	·05	....	....	....	....	....	....	·08	....	....	....	....	·87	·67	·02	....	....	....	....	....	·13	·05	....	....	....	....	2·01
1875	·02	....	....	....	....	·31	1·44	....	....	....	·25	·32	....	....	....	....	....	·01	·06	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·22	·39	·04	....	3·06
1876	·31	·06	....	....	....	....	....	....	·03	·31	·18	....	·40	....	....	·01	....	....	....	·66	·03	·65	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	....	2·65
1877	....	....	·05	....	....	....	....	....	....	·09	·07	....	....	....	....	·20	1·60	·09	·23	....	....	·92	....	....	·08	2·29	·46	·16	....	....	6·24
1878	....	·02	....	....	....	....	·03	·27	1·58	·06	....	....	T.	·09	·02	....	1·61	....	....	·04	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·25	....	3·97
1879	....	....	....	....	....	·36	....	·06	·23	·09	....	....	·09	·15	....	....	....	....	....	·05	....	....	·32	....	....	....	....	·42	....	....	....	1·77
1880	....	·14	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	·02	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·38	....	....	....	·55
1881	....	T.	T.	·01	....	....	·67	·06	....	·15	·75	·08	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·54	·46	....	....	·70	....	....	....	·49	....	·32	....	4·23
1882	....	....	....	·20	·93	·04	·34	1·84	....	....	T.	·02	·03	....	....	....	....	·03	·02	·02	·83	.01	T.	....	....	T.	T.	....	....	....	....	4·31
1883	·05	·01	....	T.	·28	·01	T.	....	....	....	·04	....	·02	2·55	T.	....	....	....	....	·09	·03	·06	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·06	....	3·20
1884	·12	....	....	....	....	·59	....	·01	1·50	....	·06	·14	·04	·02	·01	....	·17	·23	·08	·02	·01	....	....	....	·04	T.	T.	·05	·79	....	....	3·88
1885	....	T.	....	T.	....	·16	·78	T.	·08	....	·09	....	....	....	·01	·41	....	....	·33	2·06	·48	....	....	·02	·30	....	·49	·36	·20	·67	....	6·34
1886	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	T.	·16	·01	....	T.	·25	·02	....	·18	....	....	....	....	·02	....	....	·18	·09	T.	·12	·74	....	....	....	1·77
1887	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	·24	....	·08	·10	T.	T.	T.	·01	....	·20	·01	·01	·23	T.	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·88
1888	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	T.	·59	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·06	....	·01	....	....	....	T.	·06	·84	·71	·29	·39	....	....	....	2·95
1889	....	....	....	....	....	....	·02	·06	·01	T.	·49	·01	....	....	....	T.	·33	·18	....	....	....	....	....	....	·09	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·19
1890	....	·05	1·06	·02	....	....	....	....	·33	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·03	....	....	....	·06	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·55
1891	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	T.	T.	T.	....	·04	·54	·39	....	·97	....	T.	·06	·24	·53	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	....	2·80
1892	·45	....	1·31	·29	·02	....	....	·03	....	T.	·15	·22	1·13	·06	....	....	·02	·05	·09	·57	·08	·01	....	·26	·02	·06	....	....	....	....	....	4·82
Per cent	27	27	36	27	14	41	32	45	45	41	45	36	55	41	23	32	36	23	55	45	59	41	18	23	32	36	32	45	32	36	....	.....

MAY.

1871	·01	·40	·42	·02	....	....	....	T.	·30	....	....	....	....	....	....	·03	·31	....	....	....	·90	....	....	....	·02	·01	....	·05	....	....	·26	2·73
1872	....	....	....	....	....	·09	1·52	·22	....	·79	....	....	....	·11	....	1·24	....	....	....	....	....	·29	....	....	....	....	....	1·00	·58	....	·51	6·35
1873	·06	·08	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·41	·06	·66	·05	1·05	....	·08	·75	....	....	1·80	·11	....	....	....	....	·48	5·59
1874	....	....	·49	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	....	....	·16	·20	·09	....	....	....	....	....	·08	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·09	·12	1·24
1875	....	·64	·08	....	....	....	....	·07	....	·08	·02	....	....	....	·08	....	....	·02	....	·05	....	....	....	....	....	·07	1·10	....	....	....	2·04	4·25
1876	·30	....	....	·68	·01	·65	·13	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·04	·26	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2·07
1877	....	·24	....	....	·31	·70	·02	....	....	·04	·41	·99	·22	·01	·18	·54	·16	1·01	·41	·60	....	....	·14	....	....	·06	·23	·05	....	·06	2·24	8·62
1878	·50	·03	....	....	....	....	T.	T.	·04	....	....	....	·01	·01	·52	·31	·46	·27	....	....	....	·24	·33	....	....	....	....	·60	1·25	....	1·20	5·77
1879	....	·03	....	....	....	....	....	·04	....	....	....	·55	T.	....	....	....	....	·18	·75	·20	....	·06	....	·80	·01	....	....	....	2·02	·89	5·53
1880	....	....	....	·02	T.	....	·01	·20	....	....	....	....	....	·02	....	....	....	....	....	·01	....	....	·02	....	·19	1·18	....	....	1·35	·18	·22	3·40
1881	T.	....	....	·27	....	T.	·58	T.	·10	·71	·07	·36	1·46	....	....	....	·09	2·26	T.	....	·05	·09	....	....	....	·30	T.	·05	1·34	·21	....	7·94
1882	....	....	....	....	·01	....	·27	·24	·24	·01	·03	T.	·03	....	....	....	T.	·34	1·72	·06	....	·42	·04	·25	....	·80	·17	....	....	·28	....	4·91
1883	·67	·35	·57	....	....	....	....	2·98	·44	·30	T.	·08	2·48	·03	....	·02	1·61	·02	....	....	....	....	....	·19	·67	·08	·25	·54	·01	....	....	11·29
1884	·05	....	....	·06	·01	T.	·01	....	....	....	·01	·05	....	....	....	....	·15	·65	....	·01	T.	·24	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·09	1·33
1885	T.	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	·03	....	....	1·01	1·03	·32	....	....	·27	·07	T.	....	....	·20	....	....	1·39	·03	·05	·03	....	4·43
1886	....	·28	·94	·15	·01	·02	....	....	1·15	....	·04	·01	·01	·75	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	·03	....	T.	....	....	....	·55	·64	T.	4·58
1887	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	·26	·79	·05	....	·07	....	....	....	....	....	T.	·09	....	T.	....	·13	....	....	T.	T.	T.	1·39
1888	·11	·04	·94	T.	·45	·35	·55	·14	....	T.	·57	....	T.	....	·10	....	·22	·01	....	....	....	·03	....	....	....	·33	·48	·04	....	T.	T.	4·36

Daily precipitation at Omaha, Nebr.—Continued.

FEBRUARY—Continued.

Year.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1883	·12	·05	·02			·02	·01						·54	·03	·01	·01						T.	·25	·03								1·09
1884				·43	·02	·05	·20	·10			·01	·20	·05		T.	·13	·14			·02			·04				T.		·03			1·42
1885			·07		T.		·03	·19	·03							·04	·01		T.		T.		·05	·05								·47
1886			·07						·03	·08				T.	T.				T.								·14	·04				·36
1887	T.	T.			·02	·14	·02	·17		·32			·01	·04			·05	T.			·03		·20		T.							1·00
1888				·04		·01	T.	·10		T.								·36	·23					T.	T.				T.			·74
1889				T.	·01			T.			T.			T.	T.	·21	·01				T.	T.			T.	T.						·23
1890		T.					·01												·02		·04	·14			·17	·06	·08	·02				·54
1891		·03						·32								T.			·21	·07				·02	·02		·35					1·02
1892				·07		·04	·15			·02	T.							T.	T.	T.		T.	·01	·01			·04	·20	T.			·54
Per cent	14	23	14	27	27	32	45	41	23	32	32	18	18	27	27	23	41	23	27	27	23	23	36	32	23	5	36	23	14			

MARCH.

1871		·05					T.		·01		·04		·04			·01			T.	T.										·03		·18
1872		·05	·01				·54	·22	·09					·01	·06		·01													·62		1·61
1873														·40					·04													·44
1874						·36								·22	·16	·41		·07			·24										·03	1·49
1875															·03			·27												·70	·24	1·24
1876	·31				1·06	·81				·04					·29	·10			·26			·18					·13					3·18
1877	·21		·17				·06	·02												·12									·01	·47	·20	1·26
1878	·45	·20						·88			T.	·32								·27					·02	·06	·30		·26	·33		3·09
1879		·05	T.					·68	·10				·14		·02	·23		T.		·08	·06		T.		T.			·67			·14	2·17
1880			·02	T.						·06	·03	·01	·23			T.		·12								·02	·01				T.	·50
1881		·07					·27			T.	·06	·17		·08	·05	·01									T.			·01			T.	·72
1882								T.			T.			T.					·07	·03						·68	·01					·79
1883						·06	·01													·09	·15	T.		·03	·06	·01	·07		·02	T.	·02	·52
1884	T.	·02			·16			·80		T.	·07						·17	·18		·03	·62			T.	1·03		·30	·75		T.	·78	4·91
1885					·19	·01	·05																				·04	·03	·01			·33
1886			T.	·32	·24	·02	T.				·24	T.			T.			T.	T.	·18							·03	·28		T.		1·31
1887			T.	T.	·01			T.										T.		·02	T.					·10	·30	·05	T.		T.	·48
1888	1·05		T.	·36	·01		·02	·01	·09										·71		T.			·14	·86	T.	T.		T.			3·25
1889								·01							·16	·04	·16	·16														·53
1890				·03	·10	·28	T.		·04	·04	T.			·01								·03					·71	·01			·10	1·35
1891	·01	T.	·04			·20	·10	·74			·04		T.					·55		·01	·28			·03	·09	·02	T.		·15			2·26
1892				T.		·42	·02	·01	·08						T.		T.		T.	·09	·13	·01			·01	1·07			·72	·18		2·74
Per cent	23	27	27	18	32	36	41	45	27	18	32	14	14	23	36	27	14	32	23	45	32	14	0	14	32	32	50	32	32	32	36	

APRIL.

1871	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·28	....	·95	·60	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·14	·03	....	....	....	·81	·20	·31	....	....	....	3·82
1872	....	....	·12	....	....	·81	·08	....	....	....	....	....	....	·05	....	....	....	·32	·03	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·97	1·39	·07	....	3·84
1873	·71	....	....	....	....	·34	....	....	·05	....	....	....	·41	·37	·30	·20	·01	....	....	....	....	·05	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	1·38	3·83
1874	....	....	....	·14	....	·05	....	....	....	....	....	....	·08	....	....	....	....	....	·87	·67	·02	....	....	....	....	·13	·05	....	....	....	2·01
1875	·02	....	....	....	....	·31	1·44	....	....	....	·25	·32	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	·06	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·22	·39	·04	3·06
1876	·31	·06	....	....	....	....	....	....	·03	·31	·18	....	·40	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	·66	·03	·65	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	2·65
1877	....	....	·05	....	....	....	....	....	....	·09	·07	....	....	....	....	·20	1·60	·09	·23	....	....	....	·92	....	....	·08	2·29	·46	·16	....	6·24
1878	....	·02	....	....	....	....	·03	·27	1·58	·06	....	....	T.	·09	·02	....	1·61	....	....	....	·04	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·25	3·97
1879	....	....	....	....	....	·36	....	·06	·23	·09	....	....	·09	·15	....	....	....	....	....	....	·05	....	....	·32	....	....	....	·42	....	....	1·77
1880	....	·14	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	·02	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·38	....	....	·55
1881	....	T.	T.	·01	....	....	·67	·06	....	·15	·75	·08	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·54	·46	....	....	....	·70	....	....	·49	....	·82	4·23
1882	....	....	....	·20	·93	·04	·34	1·84	....	....	T.	·02	·03	....	....	....	....	....	·03	·02	·02	·83	.01	T.	....	....	T.	T.	....	....	4·31
1883	·05	·01	....	T.	·28	·01	T.	....	....	....	·04	....	·02	2·55	T.	....	....	....	....	....	·09	·03	·06	....	....	....	....	....	....	·06	3·20
1884	·12	....	....	....	....	·59	....	·01	1·50	....	·06	·14	·04	·02	·01	....	·17	·23	·08	·02	·01	....	....	....	·04	T.	T.	·05	·79	....	3·88
1885	....	T.	....	T.	....	·16	·78	T.	·08	....	·09	....	....	....	·01	·41	....	....	·23	2·06	·48	....	....	·02	·30	....	·49	·36	·20	·67	6·34
1886	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	T.	·16	·01	....	T.	·25	·02	....	·18	....	....	....	....	....	·03	....	....	·18	·09	T.	·12	·74	....	1·77
1887	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	·24	....	·08	·10	T.	T.	T.	·01	....	·20	·01	·01	·23	T.	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	·88
1888	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	T.	·59	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·06	....	·01	....	....	....	....	T.	·06	·84	·71	·29	·39	....	2·95
1889	....	....	....	....	....	....	·02	·06	·01	T.	·49	·01	....	....	....	T.	·33	·18	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·09	....	....	....	....	1·19
1890	....	·05	1·06	·02	....	....	....	....	·33	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·03	....	....	....	·06	....	....	....	....	....	1·55
1891	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	T.	T.	T.	....	·04	·54	·39	....	·97	....	T.	·06	·24	·53	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	2·80
1892	·45	....	1·31	·29	·02	....	....	·03	....	T.	·15	·22	1·13	·06	....	....	·02	·05	·09	·57	·08	·01	....	·26	·02	·06	....	....	....	....	4·82
Per cent	27	27	36	27	14	41	32	45	45	41	45	36	55	41	23	32	36	23	55	45	59	41	18	23	32	36	32	45	32	36	....

MAY.

1871	·01	·40	·42	·02	....	....	....	T.	·30	....	....	....	....	....	....	·03	·31	....	....	....	·90	....	....	....	·02	·01	....	·05	....	....	·26	2·73
1872	....	....	....	....	....	·09	1·52	·22	....	·79	....	....	....	·11	....	1·24	....	....	....	....	....	·29	....	....	....	....	....	1·00	·58	....	·51	6·35
1873	·06	·08	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·41	·06	·66	·05	1·05	....	·08	·75	....	....	1·80	·11	....	....	....	....	·48	5·59
1874	....	....	·49	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	....	....	·16	·20	·09	....	....	....	....	....	·08	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·09	·12	1·24
1875	....	·64	·08	....	....	....	....	·07	....	·08	·02	....	....	....	·08	....	....	·02	....	·05	....	....	....	....	....	·07	1·10	....	....	....	2·04	4·25
1876	·30	....	....	·68	·01	·65	·13	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·04	·26	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2·07
1877	....	·24	....	....	·31	·70	·02	....	....	·04	·41	·99	·22	·01	·18	·54	·16	1·01	·41	·60	....	....	·14	....	....	·06	·23	·05	....	·06	2·24	8·62
1878	·50	·03	....	....	....	....	T.	T.	·04	....	....	....	·01	·01	·52	·31	·46	·27	....	....	....	·24	·33	....	....	....	....	·60	1·25	....	1·20	5·77
1879	....	·03	....	....	....	....	....	·04	....	....	....	·55	T.	....	....	....	....	·18	·75	·20	....	·06	....	·80	·01	....	....	....	....	2·02	·89	5·53
1880	....	....	....	·02	T.	....	·01	·20	....	....	....	....	....	·02	....	....	....	....	....	·01	....	....	·02	....	·19	1·18	....	....	1·35	·18	·22	3·40
1881	T.	....	....	·27	....	T.	·58	T.	·10	·71	·07	·36	1·46	....	....	....	·09	2·26	T.	....	·05	·09	....	....	....	·30	T.	·05	1·34	·21	....	7·94
1882	....	....	....	....	·01	....	·27	·24	·24	·01	·03	T.	·03	....	....	....	T.	·34	1·72	·06	....	·42	·04	·25	....	·80	·17	....	....	·28	....	4·91
1883	·67	·35	·57	....	....	....	....	2·98	·44	·30	T.	·08	2·48	·03	....	·02	1·61	·02	....	....	....	....	....	·19	·67	·08	·25	·54	·01	....	....	11·29
1884	·05	....	....	·06	·01	T.	·01	....	....	....	·01	·05	....	....	....	....	·15	·65	....	·01	T.	·24	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·09	1·33
1885	T.	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	·03	....	....	1·01	1·03	·32	....	....	·27	·07	T.	....	....	·20	....	....	1·39	·03	·05	·03	....	4·43
1886	....	·28	·94	·15	·01	·02	....	....	1·15	....	·04	·01	·01	·75	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	·03	....	T.	....	....	....	·55	·64	T.	4·58
1887	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	·26	·79	·05	....	·07	....	....	....	....	T.	·09	....	T.	....	·13	....	....	T.	T.	T.	1·39
1888	·11	·04	·94	T.	·45	·35	·55	·14	....	T.	·57	....	T.	....	·10	....	·22	·01	....	....	....	·03	....	....	....	·33	·48	·04	....	T.	T.	4·36

Daily precipitation at Omaha, Nebr.—Continued.

MAY—Continued.

Year.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1889	....	....	....	....	....	....	·24	....	·48	·11	·01	....	....	....	1·12	·01	·50	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	·10	....	·10	....	T.	....	2·67
1890	....	....	....	·02	....	·17	·01	....	·51	·03	....	·15	....	....	....	....	·08	T.	....	·18	....	·52	....	·51	T.	....	....	....	....	·38	·16	2·72
1891	....	·22	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	·09	....	....	....	....	·03	....	....	....	....	·82	·69	1·02	T.	·06	·37	....	....	....	·05	1·29	·30	4·94
1892	·10	·01	T.	·53	·74	....	....	·49	1·54	·08	....	·17	·32	·43	·02	....	2·80	·40	....	T.	·11	....	....	T.	....	·19	....	·28	·06	....	·15	8·42
Per cent	41	50	27	41	32	32	45	41	41	50	45	41	45	45	45	41	55	55	27	41	32	50	23	32	32	55	27	45	41	50	64	.....

JUNE.

Year.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1871	T.	·20	·18	....	....	·26	....	....	....	1·39	....	....	....	....	·02	....	·05	·03	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·15	·37	....	....	....	2·65
1872	....	·21	·10	....	....	1·95	....	....	·03	....	....	....	·98	....	....	·02	....	....	·09	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·53	....	....	....	3·91
1873	·05	·75	·42	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	·57	2·01	1·60	....	....	....	·07	....	·38	....	....	5·86
1874	....	·12	....	·42	·29	·69	....	....	1·57	·69	....	....	·04	2·08	·32	....	....	....	....	·71	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	6·93
1875	2·55	·03	....	·18	·05	....	....	·74	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·37	5·02	·10	....	....	....	....	·39	....	....	·75	·77	....	....	....	....	10·95
1876	·04	....	....	....	....	....	·51	·08	....	1·03	·74	·27	....	....	·59	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·16	....	·01	·04	....	....	....	....	3·47
1877	·15	....	·01	·10	·04	·49	·41	·17	....	....	....	·73	·03	....	....	....	·68	·03	·67	1·36	....	....	1·07	·01	1·51	....	·10	·72	·08	....	....	8.36
1878	2·21	·60	....	....	....	·19	·09	·14	....	....	....	·11	·75	·02	....	....	....	....	·21	....	....	....	....	....	·83	....	....	·13	1·14	2·06	....	8·48
1879	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·10	....	·35	1·34	·24	·75	....	....	....	....	·61	·01	....	....	....	·36	·04	·20	·09	....	....	....	....	4·09
1880	....	....	....	·01	1·45	T.	·06	·04	·06	....	·06	·54	....	·72	T.	....	·11	·06	....	....	....	....	....	·02	....	....	·02	....	....	T.	....	3·14
1881	....	·19	....	....	....	·11	·03	·04	·02	·05	·17	·64	....	....	....	T.	....	·06	....	·64	1·56	....	....	....	....	·04	·26	....	1·74	·01	....	5·56
1882	T.	·36	T.	....	....	....	....	....	·25	2·26	·04	....	·04	·01	....	....	·01	....	T.	·87	·01	T.	1·30	....	3·38	·02	·54	2·23	·71	·02	....	12·05
1883	2·37	1·14	....	·07	·06	....	....	1·33	....	....	T.	·09	....	....	1·85	T.	·74	·03	....	1·54	....	2·21	·68	·59	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	12·70
1884	T.	....	T.	T.	T.	....	T.	·75	·01	T.	....	....	1·03	·01	....	1·12	·01	....	....	T.	1·02	·78	....	T.	·37	....	....	T.	....	1·01	....	6·11
1885	·06	·23	·09	·02	·02	....	·14	....	....	....	....	·76	....	·37	·26	....	....	....	·41	·13	·15	....	T.	·03	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2·67
1886	·05	....	....	....	....	·12	·39	....	....	....	....	....	....	·45	·12	T.	....	·10	·11	....	·11	....	....	....	....	T.	·05	....	....	....	....	1·50
1887	....	....	T.	....	....	T.	....	1·00	·42	·67	·86	·30	·81	....	....	....	....	....	T.	·15	....	....	....	·04	....	T.	....	·11	·10	·10	....	4·56
1888	·24	T.	T.	....	....	T.	T.	T.	....	....	....	·82	·41	·04	....	....	·12	T.	·05	·50	....	....	T.	....	....	1·68	T.	....	....	....	....	3·86
1889	....	....	·11	....	....	....	·52	2·02	....	·08	....	....	....	....	·84	·04	....	....	....	·85	....	....	....	·53	....	·45	....	....	....	....	....	5·44
1890	·06	T.	1·85	·06	·01	....	....	....	·03	....	T.	·01	....	·36	....	·56	....	....	·24	....	....	....	1·10	....	....	....	....	....	·67	·09	....	5·04
1891	....	·02	....	....	·63	·08	·01	·01	T.	·50	....	·22	....	·04	·01	·24	·23	·07	T.	....	....	....	....	....	2·32	2·25	·03	....	....	....	....	6·66
1892	·04	....	....	T.	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	·85	....	....	....	T.	....	·02	....	·11	....	....	·10	....	·37	....	·02	....	....	....	1·51
Per cent	55	55	41	36	36	55	45	50	41	36	32	55	45	50	41	36	41	36	45	45	32	14	32	41	27	45	50	32	32	27	....	.....

JULY.

Year.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1871	·45	1·00	·58	....	·16	2·03	....	....	....	·45	....	....	·27	....	....	....	....	·34	....	·10	....	....	....	....	·18	....	....	·03	4·35	....	....	9·89
1872	·65	....	....	....	....	·37	....	·66	·06	....	....	....	....	....	·33	....	....	....	·11	·72	....	·72	....	....	2·14	....	....	·03	....	·57	....	6·36
1873	·03	....	·08	·64	·40	1·40	·63	....	....	....	....	....	·54	·11	....	....	·43	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	4.27

1874								·05		·19					·02				·05	·21	·01					·01					·02		·54
1875	·54	·05	1·05	·94	·36				2·30		·16					·38	2·03								·41		1·77					10.10
1876	·89	·01	·30	·67	·05				·28					·52			·30	·29	·43				2·32			·50	·02	·71	·01			7·30
1877		·01						·04			·22																·69					·96
1878								·84	1·01	2·44							·72	T.	·16	·01			·02	·91	·73	·01		·59		·22		7·66
1879		·59	·02		·65		·03								·51	·04		·02	·20		·44		·52		·15							3·17
1880		·02	·01	·19	·36		2·32	·48		T.			T.	·25			·14	·37											·19	1·03		5·36
1881						T.		·05	2·41	1·73	·01							T.	1·14		T.			·10	T.	·45						5·39
1882	T.	·01				0·6	·01		·99		·51				1·23	T.	·98	T.	·06					·02			·27	·10	1·82	·70		6·76
1883				·94	·03	T.	T.			·10	T.		·55		T.	·87							T.			·19	T.		1·93	·18		4·79
1884		·36	1·06	·01							·02	T.	T.	·09		2·02	1·28	1·98	·33	·03	·01		T.	1·54		·01	·95	·01	·21	·44		10·35
1885	·07		·01	·01	·41		·04	·06		·08	T.				T.			·74			1·66	·54	2·57	T.	2·74		·06				·25	9·24
1886															T.				T.	T.			T.		T.				·69		T.	·69
1887	·18	T.	·01				T.					·72				·08	·02		T.	·99	·02										T.	2·02
1888					·04			·09	·09					1·26		·80					T.		·03	.01	·15	·01	·08	T.				2·56
1889		·04						1·87	·06	T.		·18	·03	1·23	·08	·63		·15					·64		·08							4·94
1890								·10			·01	·17			·30				2·97	·02	·16	·01										3·74
1891	·10			·52			1.33			·04	·12		·03			·04	·55			T.	·10	·07		T.	·35	·03	·01	·03			·22	3·54
1892	·32	·94							·01			·02	T.			·01		·19			·51	·14						1·16			·34	3·64
Per cent	41	45	41	36	41	23	32	45	41	36	36	18	27	27	32	41	41	41	45	36	41	23	32	27	45	36	41	36	32	32	18	.....

AUGUST.

1871		·06	.05	.19			.01								·10								·30		1·05			·32				2·58
1872				·05					·10				·02			·86	·86	·05					·22	·06			·22	·12				1·78
1873						·05	1·54	·01																								1·60
1874			·18	·21		·98								·21	·14							·27				·04		·05				2·08
1875		·34		1·30	·13				1·15					·47		·05								·25	1·01	1·44	·96	·49			·18	7·77
1876					1·43					·04			·97	·23				2·57			·97										·06	6·27
1877				T.	·14	·78		·26								·11				·95					·85		T.	·04				3·13
1878								·171	·64				·18		·04					·45												2·48
1879	T.		T.	·07	·34	·04					T.			·14	·15			·25			·03		T.	·30	·19							1·51
1880														T.	·85	1·30			T.	T.			1·35	·37	·79	1·54	·19	T.			·71	7·10
1881						·63						·35	·01	·05				T.	T.										·05	·56		1·65
1882				·26	·11	·06		·13					T.		·08							·22							·03	·10		·94
1883	·52			·01	·06	·02		1·02		·02	·27		·01		T.		1·22	·17	T.							·07						3·39
1884							T.					1·80	1·01		·03	2·13		·60	·15	·26				·42			·67	T.				7·07
1885	·19	·03			·51	1·55		·09			·53			T.			T.	T.	T.			·10	·87	·42	T.	T.			·20		·04	4·53
1886	T.		·05	·04					·98			·59	·07	·01		T.	·77		T.		·02											2·53
1887				·64	·30					·01		T.	·28			·02				·41	1·09			T.	·15		·04		·88	·12		3·94
1888		·01	·11	·32	·34	·30	·02			·07	1·43			·16	·50	T.			T.	·18	T.											3·44
1889						·68	·02	·021	·60			·33	T.							·13						·12						2·90
1890	·02	·08				T.						·25	·01			·05			·10	·06	T.		·41	·02	2·01	·01						1·02
1891	·47										·08				T.		T.	·37	·52	·17	·27					·07	·07					2·02
1892									·02				·37							·10	·12	·56	·88						·50			2·50
Per cent	23	23	18	45	41	45	18	32	27	18	18	23	50	36	41	36	18	32	27	41	32	18	27	32	32	32	27	27	23	14	18	.....

Daily precipitation at Omaha, Nebr.—Continued.

SEPTEMBER.

Year.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1871	....	....	....	....	....	1·02	....	....	·0	....	....	·01	·71	·90	....	....	....	·04	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2·73
1872	....	·12	·91	....	....	....	·02	·55	·2	....	·99	·10	....	....	....	....	....	....	·02	·03	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·26	....	....	....	3·24
1873	....	....	1·03	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	·02	·10	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	·61	....	....	....	·08	....	....	....	1·86
1874	....	·22	·69	·17	....	....	....	....	·57	·04	·33	1·01	·15	2·21	....	....	·03	·54	....	·08	·04	....	....	....	·09	1·01	....	....	....	....	....	7·18
1875	·05	·91	....	....	·49	·02	....	·19	·51	....	....	....	....	....	·14	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·24	....	2·55
1876	....	....	....	....	·78	....	....	·26	·57	....	....	1·69	·17	....	....	....	·23	·79	·32	·06	....	....	....	....	....	....	·06	....	....	....	....	4·23
1877	T.	....	....	....	·02	....	....	·75	·07	·01	....	....	....	·13	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	T.	1·05	·01	....	....	....	....	....	2·05
1878	....	....	....	....	T.	·79	....	1·13	·19	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·97	·14	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	T.	....	....	3·22
1879	....	....	....	....	·03	....	....	....	....	....	·05	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	·27	....	....	....	....	·75	·20	·13	....	1·43
1880	·03	·06	·30	....	....	·01	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·46	T.	....	·13	·04	T.	....	1·75	·13	....	....	....	....	....	2·91
1881	T.	....	T.	....	....	·21	·57	.01	....	1·38	....	....	....	T.	T.	·86	·02	....	....	....	....	T.	T.	....	....	....	....	1·64	3·67	....	....	8·36
1882	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	·03	....	....	·36	·12	....	T.	....	·51
1883	....	....	....	....	....	....	·02	....	....	....	....	·01	·50	·30	1·14	·01	....	....	·02	·31	·48	·58	·86	·30	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	4·53
1884	....	....	T.	·01	....	....	·20	T.	·21	·01	....	....	T.	1·63	·02	....	....	T.	·88	....	....	T.	·73	....	....	1·22	T.	....	....	T.	....	4·91
1885	T.	T.	·04	·19	....	·15	·78	·85	....	....	·47	·01	....	....	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	T.	....	....	2·50
1886	·61	·31	·81	....	·86	·01	·05	·21	·20	....	·01	....	·68	....	·05	·35	....	·01	....	....	....	....	·01	·01	·46	·21	·10	....	....	....	....	4·45
1887	....	1·02	....	....	....	·20	....	....	T.	·09	....	.05	·03	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·69	....	....	T.	·10	·26	....	T.	....	....	2·44
1888	....	....	....	....	....	....	·05	....	....	....	·02	....	....	·09	·05	T.	....	....	....	....	·03	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·24
1889	....	·32	T.	·46	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	·08	....	·82	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	T.	·02	·02	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	1·74
1890	....	·01	·17	·21	....	....	·36	....	....	....	....	·33	....	....	....	....	....	1·41	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	2·50
1891	....	1·02	....	....	....	....	·02	T.	....	....	·08	·11	....	....	....	....	....	....	·81	·01	....	....	....	·13	T.	·01	·07	....	....	....	....	1·76
1892	....	....	·76	....	....	·01	....	·38	·03	·15	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	....	....	....	T.	·29	....	....	1·63
Per cent	18	41	41	23	27	45	41	45	45	27	36	50	27	32	23	18	18	27	32	27	23	23	32	32	23	41	27	27	23	14	....	.....

OCTOBER.

1871	....	·09	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·38	·35	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·25	·99	....	....	....	....	....	2·06
1872	....	....	....	....	·09	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·42	2·31	.07	....	3·89
1873	·05	....	1·25	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·02	·09	·21	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·09	·07	·04	....	....	....	....	1·82
1874	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	·01	·58	....	....	....	....	....	·65	·20	....	....	....	1·45
1875	....	....	....	....	·35	....	....	·13	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·57	....	....	....	·11	....	....	1·16
1876	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·06	·04	·48	·02	·09	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·69
1877	....	....	·30	....	....	T.	·01	....	·11	....	....	....	·09	·37	·43	·59	....	1·10	2·14	·61	....	....	....	....	....	·01	....	·10	....	....	....	5·86
1878	·14	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·20	....	....	....	....	....	·07	....	....	....	....	·14	....	....	T.	....	....	·55
1879	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·15	....	....	1·90	....	....	·07	.52	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	3·64
1880	....	·54	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·90	1·00	....	·51	....	·17	·06	....	·06	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	3·54
1881	....	T.	....	·37	·18	·07	....	....	....	....	·45	·07	·08	·40	·01	·62	·40	....	....	....	T.	·86	·08	....	....	....	1·26	·49	....	....	....	4·84
1882	·31	....	·35	....	·26	·58	·16	·15	·09	·32	·58	·01	....	....	·28	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	3·09
1883	·56	·01	....	·93	·01	....	....	·01	....	....	·04	·02	·01	....	....	T.	2·72	·01	....	....	·09	....	·08	·31	....	·04	·09	·10	....	....	....	5·08

Daily precipitation near Genoa, Nebr.

JANUARY.

Year.	.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1876									·40												·10											·50
1877	·10			·25			·20	·10	·20			·30			·50																	1·65
1878																														·50	·05	·55
1879	·05														·15																	·20
1880		·05																			·05						·25		·25			·60
1881				·10	·40											·05				·05	·05	·02	·05	·10	·05							·87
1882				·20						·05		·05			·05											·05				·05		·45
1883				·10			·30									·20	·15	·30	·10													1·15
1884				·10		·30	·20							·10																		·70
1885					·25							·10		·15	·35			·15														1·00
1886			·80			·20								·20				·10				·20					·60		·03			2·13
1887					·80		·07	·04														·06							·06			1·03
1888						·05						·18																				·23
1889											·20		·59		·23				·08							·02						1·12
1890				·33						·40		·36	·22																			1·31
1891								·06		·14		·01																2·30		·15		2.68
1892				·04						·18							·08															·30
1893			·05											·05													·02	·02				·14
Per cent	12	6	12	39	17	17	23	17	12	23	6	34	12	23	28	12	12	17	12	6	17	17	6	6	6	12	17	12	12	23	6	.....

FEBRUARY.

Year.	.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1876																											·10		·65			·75
1877							·10														·10					·25						·45
1878													·20	·35																		·55
1879												·20			·20	·10									·20							·70
1880			·20																								·30					·50
1881					·15	·25	·25									·30	·20															1·15
1882																		·05		·80												·85
1883			·35											·30																		·65
1884				·35			·30	·10				·20			·10								·10			·05						1·20
1885	·04		·02				·03	·08										·02	·08		·12	·16						·02				·57
1886		·09							·05																		·25					·39
1887	·02					·33								·08			·27				·05	·12	·05									·92
1888			·12	·05				·05										·34				·08										·64
1889					·05									·02		·03																·10
1890							·02												·02		·25				·13	·02						·44
1891								2·00											·35						·10		·10					2·55
1892				·23		·40																					·10					·73
1893	·07	·10				·01							·25													·30	·30					1·03
Per cent	17	12	23	17	12	23	28	23	6	.....	.....	12	12	23	12	17	12	17	17	6	23	17	12	.....	17	23	34	6	6	.....	.....	.....

Daily precipitation at Omaha, Nebr.—Continued.

DECEMBER—Continued.

Year.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1876	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·02	....	....	....	....	T.	....	·01	·07	·03	....	·01	....	....	·01	·16
1877	....	....	·56	·25	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·30	....	·80	·38	·01	·30	....	....	....	·01	·01	T.	T.	·01	....	2·14
1878	....	....	·03	....	....	....	....	·07	....	....	....	T.	·07	·02	·01	·03	·01	T.	T.	....	T.	....	....	....	....	T.	....	·03	....	....	T.	·27
1879	....	....	....	·83	·39	....	·18	·03	·02	....	....	....	....	·01	....	....	·06	....	·04	·01	T.	....	·02	....	....	....	....	....	....	·16	....	1·75
1880	....	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	T.	....	....	T.	·03	T.	T.	·02	T.	T.	....	·13	T.	·03	....	·06	....	....	....	·28
1881	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	·07	·06	·08	·02	....	....	....	....	·01	·76	·13	·37	·05	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	·01	1·56
1882	....	....	....	....	·07	·06	....	....	·02	....	....	·02	....	T.	....	....	....	....	T.	·43	·11	....	....	·13	·05	....	....	....	....	·03	....	·93
1883	....	....	....	....	....	·57	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	·01	·02	....	....	T.	....	T.	·01	....	....	·17	....	....	T.	·02	·01	·72
1884	....	....	T.	T.	T.	·03	....	....	....	....	....	T.	T.	·02	....	T.	·01	....	....	T.	·04	·10	·02	·04	·05	T.	·01	·07	·03	·16	·04	·72
1885	....	....	....	T.	....	T.	·07	·22	·01	T.	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	·81	·05	T.	1·17
1886	....	....	T.	T.	....	....	....	·01	....	....	·42	....	....	....	....	....	T.	·04	....	·01	T.	....	....	T.	·18	·78	....	....	....	....	·02	1·46
1887	·47	T.	·20	....	....	....	T.	....	....	·04	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	T.	....	....	T.	....	....	T.	·05	....	....	T.	·85	1·11
1888	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·19	....	....	....	·08	·08	....	·01	....	....	....	....	·02	T.	·01	·35	....	....	....	·22	....	·96
1889	....	T.	....	T.	T.	....	....	....	....	·02	....	....	....	....	....	T.	T.	....	·03	·02	·02	....	....	....	....	....	....	·41	....	....	....	·50
1890	....	T.	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·08	·08
1891	....	....	·19	T.	....	·13	....	....	....	....	....	....	·04	1.06	·06	....	....	....	....	....	·29	....	....	....	·24	....	....	·05	....	....	·01	2·07
1892	T.	T.	....	....	·01	T.	1·30	T.	T.	....	....	....	·12	T.	....	....	·02	·15	·08	·04	T.	....	T.	....	·03	T.	T.	·02	·02	T.	T.	1·79
Per cent	9	14	27	27	27	27	27	23	23	23	23	18	23	23	23	18	45	23	32	45	50	23	36	27	36	41	27	36	23	36	41	.....

MAY.

1876	....	....	....	·45	....	·90	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·10	....	....	·10	....	....	....	....	·20	....	·05	....	....	....	....	....	....	·40	3·20
1877	....	·15	....	....	·55	....	....	....	....	·70	·30	....	1·10	·10	1·30	·30	·10	....	·45	·90	....	....	....	....	....	·40	·50	·05	....	·50	·40	7·80
1878	·15	·30	....	....	....	....	·02	....	....	....	....	·05	·10	....	·50	....	·70	....	....	....	....	2·30	....	....	....	....	·20	·10	·90	·10	5·42
1879	....	....	....	....	....	....	·18	·10	·05	....	....	·80	....	....	....	....	....	....	·72	....	....	·02	....	·10	....	....	....	....	....	·80	....	2·77
1880	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·15	....	....	....	....	....	....	·10	....	....	·13	....	....	·30	·15	....	·83
1881	....	....	....	....	....	·30	·70	....	....	·60	....	....	·15	....	....	·05	·10	1·90	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·45	·30	1·00	1·00	·30	....	6·85
1882	....	....	....	....	2·00	....	·40	·05	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·60	·50	....	....	·60	....	·35	....	·95	....	....	....	....	....	6·45
1883	....	·20	....	....	....	·10	·35	·10	·10	....	....	1·80	....	....	....	1·40	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·10	·05	·35	·80	·05	....	....	5·40
1884	....	....	....	·60	1·75	....	....	....	....	....	·05	·05	....	....	....	·70	....	....	....	....	....	·90	....	....	....	....	....	....	·15	....	....	4·20
1885	....	....	....	....	·14	....	....	....	....	....	·10	....	....	....	·51	....	·53	....	·16	....	....	....	·04	....	....	·02	·50	....	·14	....	·03	2·17
1886	....	·52	....	....	....	·28	....	....	·67	....	·09	·23	....	·91	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·03	....	....	....	....	....	....	·07	1·03	·02	4·85
1887	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·27	·52	....	....	·34	....	....	....	·09	....	....	·30	....	·01	....	....	·25	....	....	....	1·78
1888	·04	....	·15	....	·78	·34	....	·94	....	....	·52	....	....	....	....	....	....	·12	....	·05	....	·15	....	....	....	....	1·75	·22	....	....	....	5·06
1889	....	....	....	....	....	....	·45	·10	·02	·65	....	....	·13	....	....	....	....	....	·13	·04	....	....	....	·03	·06	....	....	....	·41	....	....	2·02
1890	....	....	....	·11	·06	·01	....	·06	....	....	....	1·02	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·19	....	·55	·65	....	·01	....	....	....	·67	....	·07	3·40
1891	....	·70	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·90	....	....	....	·08	....	....	....	....	·20	·17	·67	....	·07	·11	....	....	....	·23	....	....	·02	3·15
1892	·14	....	....	·10	·20	....	....	·87	1·10	....	....	·69	·07	·05	....	·02	·90	·42	T.	T.	·08	....	....	....	·13	....	·02	1·08	·05	·09	....	6·01
1893	....	....	·22	·50	....	·09	·33	....	....	·28	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·40	....	....	·04	....	....	....	....	2·25	....	5·11
Per cent	17	28	12	28	39	39	39	39	28	28	28	34	34	34	17	34	39	28	34	28	17	39	39	28	34	34	34	45	56	45	39	.....

JUNE.

1876	....	....	....	....	....	·30	·10	·50	1·10	....	·20	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·30	....	....	·10	....	....	·90	....	3·50
1877	....	....	·60	·10	....	....	1·60	....	....	....	....	....	·05	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·05	....	1·20	....	·50	·05	·15	·40	·02	....	....	5·72
1878	·20	·40	....	....	....	·40	....	·20	....	....	....	·80	·80	·25	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·45	....	....	....	·40	·45	....	....	4·35
1879	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·32	....	·15	·75	....	....	....	....	....	·30	1·30	....	....	....	....	·33	....	·05	....	....	·05	....	3·25
1880	....	....	....	....	1·15	....	·05	·10	·05	....	2·50	·30	....	1·70	....	....	·80	....	....	....	....	....	·10	·20	·15	....	·10	....	....	·15	....	7·35
1881	....	....	....	....	·50	....	·10	....	·30	·05	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·40	....	2·00	....	....	....	·30	....	....	....	·25	....	....	3·90
1882	....	·10	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·75	....	....	....	·70	....	·10	....	....	....	....	·40	....	....	·50	....	·10	....	·40	....	·05	....	....	4·10
1883	·60	....	....	·10	....	....	·10	·05	....	....	·03	....	....	1·00	....	....	·65	....	....	·50	....	·25	·85	·90	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	5·03
1884	....	....	....	....	....	....	·10	1.10	....	....	....	·30	....	....	·50	....	....	....	....	....	....	·05	·20	....	·20	....	....	....	....	·02	....	2·47
1885	....	....	·43	·11	·18	....	....	·02	....	....	....	·29	....	1·15	....	....	....	....	·19	....	....	....	·11	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2·48
1886	·23	....	....	....	....	....	1·06	·43	....	....	....	....	....	·46	....	·40	....	·32	·04	....	·29	....	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	3·24
1887	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·27	....	·41	·60	·46	·88	·31	....	....	....	....	....	·65	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·02	1·79	....	5·79
1888	·11	....	....	....	....	·28	....	....	....	....	....	·28	·81	....	·12	....	....	....	·63	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·26	....	....	....	....	....	3·49
1889	....	....	....	....	....	·21	·38	....	·08	....	....	....	....	....	1.34	....	·03	·13	....	·90	....	....	·10	....	....	·05	....	....	....	....	....	3·22
1890	....	·09	·85	·23	....	....	....	....	....	·19	....	....	·08	·53	....	....	....	....	·08	....	....	·62	....	....	....	....	·04	.81	....	·86	....	4·38
1891	1·20	....	....	....	....	1·02	....	....	....	1·00	....	·40	....	·08	·41	·23	....	....	....	·21	....	....	....	·12	·87	2·85	·09	....	....	....	....	8·48
1892	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·72	....	....	....	....	....	....	·03	....	....	....	....	....	....	·72	·03	....	....	....	....	1·50
1893	....	·04	·88	·67	....	....	....	....	·12	....	....	....	....	....	·15	....	....	....	....	....	·11	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·50	·56	....	3·23
Per cent	28	23	28	28	17	28	58	39	39	23	28	50	34	39	34	17	17	12	45	28	23	17	39	28	45	28	45	17	34	39	....	.....

Daily precipitation near Genoa, Nebr.—Continued.

MARCH.

Year.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1876	·35			1·00						·10			·95					·35				·40					·40					3·55
1877	·20	·20					·10												·05										·30	·05		·90
1878		·10																		·05							1·00			·40		1·55
1879		·05													·05	·25											·15					·50
1880										·10		·90					·10													·10		1·20
1881		·20					·15			·10	·25			·20	·05																	·95
1882																																·00
1883																			·10	·15					·05		·10		·20	·02		·62
1884					·25	·05		·20		·20										·40				·05			·40			·30	·90	2·75
1885					·18		·05																				·07	·04				·34
1886					·20						·41									·06								·15				·82
1887																				·05						·02		·30				·37
1888	·25			·80															·50						·70							2·25
1889														·32			·67															·99
1890			·08		·07	·04				·06																	·88			·03		1·16
1891	·03	·02			·03					·15										·06				·12	·06				1·34	·04		1·82
1892			·02		·15								·02	·03						·14		·10										·46
1893			·67				·92	·05								·17						·29				·12		·10				2·32
Per cent	23	28	17	12	34	12	23	12		34	12	6	12	17	12	12	12	6	17	39		17		12	17	12	39	23	17	39	6	

APRIL.

Year.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1876		·60	.05						·05	·10			·60		·05							·25	·50									2·20
1877							·15				·10					·05	·15		·15				1·00		·05		2·55	·10				4·30
1878	·25						·05		·40				·05	·10		·05	·25													·05		1·20
1879						·40		·25	·05					·30							·05	·40						·20				1·65
1880		·95														·20								·05				·35				1·55
1881							·70	·20		·15	·65	·25								·45				·65				·55				3·00
1882		·05	·20	·60	·20			1·80			·20		·10				·05					·20										3·60
1883	·20			·05									·15	·10							·10		·70									1·43
1884	·05					·90			·20				·10	·10			·15	·20								·25		·10				2·05
1885					·04	·11					·01			·08		·18			1·28	1·32	·02			·03			1·40		·10	·75		5·32
1886			·05						·80				·05									·05			·58			·58	·10				2·21
1887												·71	·30				·10		·21	·04	·01	·88				·01						2.26
1888									·45															·07			2·30	·29	·47			3·58
1889											·75	·34					·67	·45														2·21
1890			·88					·80													·05				·08							1·31
1891									·03			·38		·80		1.00		·50	2.00		·13											4·84
1892	·08		·20	·21					·03		·35		1·04				T.	·30	1.16	·15				·33								3·85
1893										·09	·07						·42	·03					·85		·60				·16			2·22
Per cent	23	17	23	17	12	17	17	23	45	17	39	23	45	34	6	28	39	28	28	23	34	28	23	28	23	12	23	39	17	12		

MAY.

1876	....	....	....	·45	....	·90	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·10	....	....	·10	....	....	....	....	·20	....	·05	....	....	....	....	....	·40	3·20
1877	....	·15	....	....	·55	....	....	....	....	·70	·30	....	1·10	·10	1·30	·30	·10	....	·45	·90	....	....	....	....	·40	·50	·05	....	·50	·40	7·80
1878	·15	·30	....	....	....	....	·02	....	....	....	....	....	·05	·10	....	·50	....	·70	....	....	....	....	2·30	....	....	....	....	·20	·10	·90	·10	5·42
1879	....	....	....	....	....	....	·18	·10	·05	....	....	·80	....	....	....	....	....	....	·72	....	....	·02	....	·10	....	....	....	....	....	·80	2·77
1880	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·15	....	....	....	....	....	....	·10	....	....	·13	....	....	·30	·15	·83
1881	....	....	....	....	....	·30	·70	....	....	·60	....	....	·15	....	....	·05	·10	1·90	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·45	·30	1·00	1·00	·30	6·85
1882	....	....	....	....	2·00	....	·40	·05	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·60	·50	....	....	·60	....	·35	....	·95	....	....	....	....	6·45
1883	....	·20	....	....	....	·10	·35	·10	·10	....	....	....	1·80	....	....	....	1·40	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·10	·05	·35	·80	·05	....	5·40
1884	....	....	....	·60	1·75	....	....	....	....	....	·05	·05	....	....	....	....	·70	....	....	....	....	·90	....	....	....	....	....	....	·15	....	....	4·20
1885	....	....	....	....	·14	....	....	....	....	....	·10	....	....	....	·51	....	·53	....	·16	....	....	....	·04	....	....	·02	·50	....	·14	....	·03	2·17
1886	....	·52	....	....	....	·28	....	....	·67	....	·09	·23	....	·91	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·03	....	....	....	....	....	....	·07	1·03	·02	4·85
1887	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·27	·52	....	....	·34	....	....	....	·09	....	....	·30	....	·01	....	....	·25	....	....	....	1·78
1888	·04	....	·15	....	·78	·34	....	·94	....	....	·52	....	....	....	....	....	....	·12	....	·05	....	·15	....	....	....	1·75	·22	....	....	....	....	5·06
1889	....	....	....	....	....	....	·45	·10	·02	·65	....	....	....	·13	....	....	....	....	·13	·04	....	....	....	·03	·06	....	....	....	·41	....	....	2·02
1890	....	....	....	·11	·06	·01	....	·06	....	....	....	1·02	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·19	....	·55	·65	....	·01	....	....	....	·67	....	·07	3·40
1891	....	·70	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·90	....	....	....	....	·08	....	....	....	·20	·17	·67	....	·07	·11	....	....	....	·23	....	....	·02	3·15
1892	·14	....	....	·10	·20	....	....	·87	1·10	....	....	·69	·07	·05	....	·02	·90	·42	T.	T.	·08	....	....	....	·13	....	·02	1·08	·05	·09	....	6·01
1893	....	....	·22	·50	....	·09	·33	....	....	·28	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·40	....	....	·04	....	....	....	....	2·25	....	5·11
Per cent	17	28	12	28	39	39	39	39	28	28	28	34	34	34	17	34	39	28	34	28	17	39	39	28	34	34	34	45	56	45	39	.....

JUNE.

1876	....	....	....	....	....	·30	·10	·50	1·10	....	·20	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·30	....	....	·10	....	....	·90	....	3·50
1877	....	....	·60	·10	....	....	1·60	....	....	....	....	....	·05	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·05	....	1·20	....	·50	·05	·15	·40	·02	....	....	5·72
1878	·20	·40	....	....	....	·40	....	·20	....	....	....	·80	·80	·25	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·45	....	....	....	·40	·45	....	....	4·35
1879	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·32	....	·15	·75	....	....	....	....	....	·30	1·30	....	....	....	....	·33	....	·05	....	....	·05	....	3·25
1880	....	....	....	....	1·15	....	·05	·10	·05	....	2·50	·30	....	1·70	....	....	·80	....	....	....	....	....	·10	·20	·15	....	·10	....	....	·15	....	7·35
1881	....	....	....	....	·50	....	·10	....	·30	·05	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·40	....	2·00	....	....	....	·30	....	....	....	·25	....	....	3·90
1882	....	·10	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·75	....	....	....	·70	....	·10	....	....	....	....	·40	....	....	·50	....	·10	....	·40	....	·05	....	....	4·10
1883	·60	....	....	·10	....	....	·10	·05	....	....	·03	....	....	1·00	....	....	·65	....	....	·50	....	·25	·85	·90	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	5·03
1884	....	....	....	....	....	....	·10	1.10	....	....	....	·30	....	....	·50	....	....	....	....	....	....	·05	·20	....	·20	....	....	....	....	·02	....	2·47
1885	....	....	·43	·11	·18	....	....	·02	....	....	....	·29	....	1·15	....	....	....	....	·19	....	....	....	·11	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2·48
1886	·23	....	....	....	....	....	1·06	·42	....	....	....	....	....	·46	....	·40	....	·32	·04	....	·29	....	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	3·24
1887	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·27	....	·41	·60	·46	·88	·31	....	....	....	....	....	·65	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·02	1·79	....	5·79
1888	·11	....	....	....	....	·28	....	....	....	....	....	·28	·81	....	·12	....	....	....	·63	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·26	....	....	....	....	....	3·49
1889	....	....	....	....	....	·21	·38	....	·08	....	....	....	....	....	1.34	....	·03	·13	....	·90	....	....	·10	....	....	·05	....	....	....	....	....	3·22
1890	....	·09	·85	·23	....	....	....	....	....	....	·19	....	....	·08	·53	....	....	....	·08	....	....	·62	....	....	....	....	·04	.81	....	·86	....	4·38
1891	1·20	....	....	....	....	1·02	....	....	....	1·00	....	·40	....	·08	·41	·23	....	....	....	·21	....	....	....	·12	·87	2·85	·09	....	....	....	....	8·48
1892	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·72	....	....	....	....	....	....	·03	....	....	....	....	....	....	·72	·03	....	....	....	....	1·50
1893	....	·04	·88	·87	....	....	....	....	·12	....	....	....	....	....	·15	....	....	....	....	....	·11	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·50	·56	....	3·23
Per cent	28	23	23	28	17	28	58	39	39	23	28	50	34	39	34	17	17	12	45	28	23	17	39	28	45	28	45	17	34	39	....	.....

Daily precipitation near Genoa, Nebr.—Continued.

JULY.

Year.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums
1876	·15			·10				·35					·25	·15			1·90		·70				2·50	·10		·95		·30				7·45
1877								·55			·05						·05										·20				·05	·90
1878							1·10	1·50	·40							·80			·05		·05		·40	·30				·20		·30		5·10
1879		·30	·25		·30										·20	·60	·35				·60		·30		·20							3·10
1880			·30	1·30	·30		1·50				·15		·20				·50	·60											·25			5·10
1881						·80	1·00	·60		·50								·20	·25						·60		·05					4·00
1882						·15			·60		·15						·40		·20								·20	·40	·20			2·30
1883				·05	·10	·05							·50	·40	·06							1·60				1·00				1·15		4·91
1884		1·05	·65													·80		·70		·80				2·20	·20	·20	·10			·60		7·30
1885	·33		·15	·05		·01				·05											·72		·05	·03								1·39
1886																		·17		·05			1·49						·73	·28	·50	3·22
1887		·25						·02			·50					1·64		·02	·11		·89					·07		·89				4·38
1888		2·00						·80					2·80				·07					·06	·46		·90		·05					7·14
1889						·59			·68		·67	·02	1·46	·12		·40	·60			·05			1·30		·07							5·96
1890		·85												·12					·33	·03		·02									·16	1·51
1891			·18	·76	·01		1·88			·02	·01		·23			·04				·13	·02	·23		·16	·40	·45	·01		·68		·28	5·49
1892	1·14															·31		·05				·06			·07		·10	·71				2·43
1893	·45	·07										·93		·05	·12	·04	·48	T								1·20	·50	·57				4·41
Per cent	23	34	28	28	23	28	23	34	17	17	34	12	34	28	17	45	45	34	34	28	28	28	39	28	39	34	45	34	23	23	23	

AUGUST.

Year.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums
1876					·10					·85			·05					·30		·25										·15		1·70
1877						·30										·30				·50								·45				1·55
1878				·10				·60																								·70
1879			·05	·02	·65	·10						·01	·25	·30						·01			·30									1·69
1880															·05	·40		·20		T.			·30			·25	·40	2·40	·10		·60	4·60
1881												·25	·10				·05													·05		·45
1882					·10			·05														·05							·30			·50
1883				·10	·05	·30	·70				·40	·05	·05													·10						1·75
1884													1·09		·70	·10		·75		·30				·80			·15	·05				3·85
1885	·86				1·06		·02				·46			·11									·33			·08		·94			·23	4·09
1886		·78						·86		·34			·05				·15		·65								·05	T			·82	3·20
1887				·99				·27				·57			·08	·20	·36	·08		·91				·25	·23		·01		·50	·03		4·48
1888			·07	1·00	·24	·17									1·29		·55	·89	·01											·27		4·49
1889							·08	·09			·07	·47			·05			·40							·08							1·24
1890							·10		·01	·08		·48	·06					·84				·75	·25	·02	·07							2·66
1891					·11					·08		·12						·57		·18	·78					·07						1·91
1892								2·07	·12				·15						·04	·07	·63	·61	·05						2·05	·02		5·81
1893								·12				·06			·38	·35	·38		·08			·08				·06						1·46
Per cent	6	6	12	28	39	23	23	39	12	23	17	45	45	12	34	28	28	45	23	39	12	23	28	17	17	28	23	23	23	28	17	

SEPTEMBER.

1876	....	....	....	1·60	....	·70	....	·75	....	....	....	·55	....	....	....	·10	....	1·10	·85	....	....	....	....	·20	....	....	·05	....	....	....	....	5·90
1877	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2·30	....	....	....	....	·05	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·35	....	....	....	....	....	....	2·70
1878	....	....	....	....	·30	1·15	....	·80	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·05	....	....	·10	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·40	....	2·80
1879	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·25	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·20	·01	....	....	....	·15	·01	·50	....	1·12
1880	·15	....	....	....	....	....	·15	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·65	....	....	·05	....	....	....	·80	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·80
1881	·10	....	....	....	1·05	·30	....	....	....	2·70	....	....	....	....	....	·35	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·80	....	....	5·30
1882	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·90	....	....	....	1·90
1883	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·95	....	·10	....	....	....	·10	....	·50	·10	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·75
1884	....	....	....	....	·40	....	·17	....	·15	....	....	....	1·15	....	....	....	....	·65	....	....	....	....	·50	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	3·02
1885	....	....	·13	....	....	·52	·50	·53	....	....	·13	·25	....	....	....	....	·05	....	·05	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·02	·11	....	....	2·29
1886	....	·33	....	....	·01	·82	·26	·72	·35	·05	....	....	....	·08	....	·06	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·75	....	....	....	....	....	....	3·43
1887	10·60	....	....	....	....	·05	....	....	....	·16	....	·45	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·08	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	11·34
1888	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·10	....	....	....	....	....	....	·27	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·38
1889	....	·47	....	·13	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·80	....	....	....	....	....	....	·30	....	·05	....	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	1·76
1890	....	....	·37	....	·16	·18	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	3·13	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	3·84
1891	·08	....	....	·01	....	....	·12	....	....	....	·58	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	·31	....	·01	....	....	....	....	1·13
1892	....	....	·39	....	....	·25	....	·17	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·81
1893	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2·13	....	....	2·13
Per cent	23	12	17	17	28	45	28	28	17	17	17	23	17	17	6	17	6	28	17	6	34	6	17	17	23	....	17	17	23	12	....	.....

OCTOBER.

1876	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·30	·40	....	·10	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·80
1877	....	....	·10	....	....	....	....	·15	....	....	....	....	1·00	....	....	·05	....	·70	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·10	....	....	2·10
1878	....	....	....	T	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·05	....	·25	....	....	....	....	·30
1879	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·25	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·25
1880	....	·45	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·50	....	....	·60	....	·20	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·75
1881	....	....	....	·10	·10	....	....	....	....	·10	·20	....	....	·20	....	....	·10	....	....	....	·30	·40	·05	....	....	....	·30	·60	....	....	2·45
1882	·10	·50	·10	....	....	....	....	....	·25	....	·60	·05	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·60
1883	·20	....	....	·50	....	....	....	....	....	....	·10	....	....	....	....	....	·50	....	....	....	....	·10	....	1·70	....	....	·10	·05	....	....	3·25
1884	·55	....	·40	·40	....	·50	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·25	....	....	....	....	....	·70	....	....	....	....	2·80
1885	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·37	·52	....	....	....	....	....	....	·24	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·47	....	....	....	1·60
1886	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·08	....	....	·53	·82	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·43
1887	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	·57	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·04	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·62
1888	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·12	....	....	....	·30	....	....	....	....	....	·20	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·68
1889	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·10	·03	....	....	....	....	....	·03	....	·02	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·18
1890	....	....	....	....	·06	....	....	·01	....	....	1·16	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·23
1891	....	·02	2·23	....	·23	....	....	....	....	....	....	·87	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·13	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	3·48
1892	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·90	....	....	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·45	1·36
1893	....	....	....	....	·34	....	....	....	....	....	·14	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	·49
Per cent	17	23	23	17	23	6	....	17	12	12	34	17	17	12	12	12	17	23	6	12	28	17	23	12	6	12	17	17	....	....	6	.....

Daily precipitation near Genoa, Nebr.—Continue.

NOVEMBER.

Year.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1876	·10											·20								·30								·20				·80
1877	·30			·20			·25						·20					·30		·15												1·40
1878									·45																							·45
1879										·20	·55																·10					·85
1880				·10					·10															·15	·10							·45
1881							·40				·45							·10												·05		1·00
1882				·05							·30																					·35
1883									T																							T
1884			·05																													·02
1885						1·19					·01											·12										1·35
1886	·01							·07								1·20													·10	·05		1·43
1887								·07															·13		·25	·07						·52
1888							·15										·05															·20
1889	·79	·01									·27									·11						·12						1·30
1890								·45									·62															1·07
1891										·08			·07								·03			·02								·20
1892	·50											·05																				·55
1893											·55																		·05	·12		·72
Per cent	28	6	6	17		6	17	17	12	12	34	12	12			6	12	12		17	6	6	6	12	12	12	6	6	12	17		

DECEMBER.

Year.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1876									·10															·30	·15							·55
1877			·20	·05											·15				·20	·05		·50				·10		·10				1·35
1878								·15					·20	·05				·10		·30		·10						·20				1·10
1879				T			·15		·40							·20			·10													·85
1880					T												2·00			2·00				·50		1·00	1·00					6·50
1881										·30											·20											·50
1882						·20						·15							·10		·30									·05		·80
1883						·90										·05			·05	·10		·20				·20					·25	1·75
1884													·20			·10					·20	·30	·10				·10	·25	·10		·30	1·65
1885				T				·11			·03		·01																·50			·65
1886		·01	·10								·25						·20			·05			·05		·31	·20				·05		1·22
1887	·28		·01							T									T		T					T	·17			·13		·59
1888											·11				·03										·11							·25
1889																					·16							·28				·44
1890																																
1891		·10												1·25							·21				·13			·04				1·73
1892					·01		·05						·05			·10		·15		·05					·30		·05					·76
1893		·10				T				T					·25									·65								1.00
Per cent	6	17	17	12	6	12	12	12	12	12	17	6	23	12	17	23	12	12	23	34	28	23	12	17	28	23	23	28	12	17	12	

Daily precipitation at North Platte, Nebr.

JANUARY.

Year.	1.	2.	3	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1875	....	....	·10	T.	·03	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	·01	·04	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·05	....	....	....	....	·24
1876	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·04	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	·02	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·02	·09
1877	....	....	....	·08	·09	·09	·74	....	·10	....	·22	·03	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·03	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·38
1878	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·00
1879	·01	....	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·02	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·03	1·26	2·33
1880	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·02	....	·01	....	....	·03
1881	·01	....	....	....	·02	·07	T.	·02	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	·04	T.	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·16
1882	....	....	·18	·21	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	·02	·02	....	·01	T.	....	....	....	....	T.	....	T.	....	....	·02	....	....	....	....	....	·46
1883	....	....	T.	·02	....	....	·08	....	....	....	....	T.	·01	....	....	·13	·06	·76	·02	·04	....	·04	....	T.	·01	....	....	....	....	T.	·03	1·20
1884	....	....	T.	·02	....	·02	·02	....	....	....	....	....	....	·04	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·10
1885	....	....	....	....	T.	T.	....	....	T.	....	T.	·02	T.	·02	·03	....	....	·04	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	·12
1886	T.	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	·02	....	....	·01	....	....	T.	....	·01	....	....	·01	....	....	....	·03	....	....	....	....	T.	·09
1887	·11	·01	....	....	T.	....	T.	·02	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	·01	....	·15
1888	T.	....	....	....	·05	T.	....	....	....	....	....	·02	T.	·02	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·09
1889	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	T	....	....	....	....	·08	·18	·36	·32	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	T.	·02	T.	....	....	....	....	·97
1890	....	....	·01	·03	·02	....	....	....	....	....	·04	·10	....	·14	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	·35
1891	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	·23	·11	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	T.	....	....	....	·02	·24	·04	....	....	·65
1892	T.	....	....	....	·10	....	....	·20	·30	·22	·02	....	....	T.	....	....	·10	T.	....	·02	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·08	1·04
1893	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	....	....	....	T.	T.	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	·01	·01	....	....	....	·03
Per cent	26	11	21	26	42	21	26	21	26	11	26	37	21	37	26	16	21	16	16	11	5	26	5	0	11	21	26	11	11	11	21	.....

FEBRUARY.

Year.	1.	2.	3	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1875	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	·04	....	....	....	·02	....	....	....	....	....	·03	....	·01	....	·15	·01	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	·26
1876	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	....	·12	....	....	·13
1877	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·03	·34	....	....	....	....	....	·37
1878	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·17	....	....	....	·18
1879	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·02	....	....	·09	·02	....	....	....	....	....	....	·18	·12	....	....	....	....	....	....	·43
1880	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	·02	....	....	....	·03
1881	....	....	....	·02	·53	·05	·01	....	....	....	....	....	T.	·15	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·76
1882	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	T.	·04	....	·06	....	....	....	....	....	....	·03	....	....	....	....	·13
1883	·60	·11	·21	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·35	....	T.	·10	....	....	....	T.	....	·01	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·38
1884	....	....	....	·01	·07	·02	·04	....	....	T.	·02	·02	·01	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	·02	....	....	....	....	....	·02	....	....	·23
1885	T.	T.	T.	....	....	....	.01	·07	T.	....	T.	....	....	·01	....	....	....	T.	·01	T.	T.	·02	·04	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·16
1886	·03	T.	·03	·02	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·08	·01	....	....	....	·17
1887	T.	....	....	....	....	·01	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	·19	·02	....	·05	·12	T.	·10	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·49
1888	....	....	·10	·18	....	T.	T.	T.	·02	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·02	·10	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	·42
1889	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	T.	·04	....	....	T.	·01	·02	T.	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·07

Daily precipitation at North Platte, Nebr.—Continued.

FEBRUARY—Continued.

Year.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1890					·01	·15					T.								·04		T.	T.			·18	T.	T.					·38
1891	T.	·03					·04	·12	·04								·01		·07	·01		·01		T.	·06		·10					·49
1892	T.			·74	T.	·02	·08							T.	T.				T.				·02			T.	·11					·97
1893	·12	·02				·01							·10	·11							T.					T.	·26					·62
Per cent	26	21	21	26	16	32	26	16	16	5	16	5	32	21	11	16	21	21	32	21	16	26	26	16	21	16	37	16	11			

MARCH.

Year.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1875				·07	·04									·02				·27														·40
1876										·18					·02				·02			·02			·23	·01	·01					·49
1877	·02	·02	·06				·02	·02																					·03	T.	·02	·19
1878	·18								·08	·02																·17	·63		·32			1·40
1879																·11																·11
1880											·02	·10					·06															·18
1881		·07				·15				·24	·16	T.		·52	·01	T.			T.	·05							T.	·06				1·26
1882				·03						·01																						·04
1883				T.	·01															·01						·10	·01	·02	·01		·31	·47
1884			T.	·01	·02	·09	·05			T.	·01									·11	·08	·30		·05	·01		·25	·13			·75	1·86
1885				·01	T.	·01	T.				T.		T.			·02	·11					·04	·03		T.		·15	T.	T.	T.		·37
1886	T.	·02	·02	·21							·10								·04								·17	·07				·63
1887			·01	·04	·01																					·03	·01				·12	·22
1888	·06		·17	·29				T.	·01									·01	·54					T.	·27	·07					·02	1·44
1889								T.							T.		·16	·06		·26	·14	T.									T.	·62
1890					·01	·03			T.	·04								T.									·01			T.	·18	·27
1891	T.	T.	T.		T.	·06				·18	·16			T.		T.	T.	T.						·26	·34	T.		·01	1·16	·02		2·19
1892				T.	·04			T.	T.					·04	·12	·08	T.		T.	·01	·24					T.			·08			·61
1893			·20				T.	·89		·04						·06	T.					·01	·05	T.			·04					1·29
Per cent	21	16	32	42	37	26	16	16	16	37	26	5		16	16	26	21	21	21	26	16	21	11	16	21	32	47	26	26	11	32	

APRIL.

Year.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1875			·06	·02		·08	1·58			T.	·02		T.							·14	·18			1·35	·04			2·74				6·21
1876	·03	·18									·12	·16																		·02		·51
1877											·02	·01													·07	·21	·06					·37
1878								·11	·03						·45	·13	·03			·20	·02							·15		·03		1·15

1879						·04			·02												·07	·02	·23				·03			1·51		1·92
1880		·07																·02										·07				·16
1881		·02					·17				·26	·09					T.	·02		·11	·01			·19								·87
1882			T.	·60	·03		·24	·69		·01	·06	·01					·18	·01			·03	T.			·08			T.		T.		1·94
1883	·12				·98					·20		·01		·12				·02		·01	1·29	·06	·42	·02	·01	·02	·08		·01	·60		3·02
1884	·21	T.	T.	·06	T.	·46			T.		·05	·02	·07	·02		T.					T.		T.	·03	·01	·65	T.	·46	·10	T.		2·14
1885					02	·17		·06	T.						·02	·01	·01		T.	·44	·46			T.	T.	T.	·01		·39			1·59
1886	·10	·14	·21	·05					·03			·53	·11	·04							·32	·21			·35			T.				2·09
1887									T.		·60	·43	·56	·40		·22	·05		·55			·59					·01					3·41
1888		·01							·02								·02									·54	1·23	·54				2·36
1889							·56	·27		·16	·78	·02			·18	·22	·34						T.					T.	·12			2·65
1890	T.		·34					·02						·22	·01	·01				·08	·04	2·80	·16	·20	24	·34						4·46
1891	T.							·01	·01				T.			·74		T.	1.52	·18	·12					T.						2·58
1892	·50		T.	·06			·04	·02	T.	·10	·18	·18	·02				·01	1·21	·42	·50	·02					·44	T.					4·30
1893																								·01	·10	·02		T.	T.	·02		·15
Per cent	32	26	21	26	16	21	26	37	37	21	47	53	26	26	21	32	37	26	16	42	58	26	21	32	43	42	37	37	21	32		

MAY.

1875						·11	·04	·05					·32		·02	·68			·16			·08	·01			·20				·02	1·69
1876	·03					1·13	·12					·30									·16	·60		·07			·13	·38	·05		2·97
1877											·05	·06	·04	·04		·24					·20	·32	·41	1·64	·04					·18	3·22
1878	·04						·23					·10	·02		·89		·53	·14			·28	·04					·07	·14		·76		3·24
1879								·02			·09	·07				·18			1·36		·10	·05								·27	·11	2·25
1880				·02			·16		·02			·17		·33	·40	·27			·13		·33			·44		·01						2·28
1881	·12	·25	T.				·14		1·14	·01	·13	·03						T.					2·25	·33			·34	·10				4·84
1882			·02	·10		T.	·84	·34	·12								·22	·28	T.			·64	·01	·19	·03	1·07	·09		·01	·01	·01	3·98
1883	·10	·05					·10	·96	·40			·13	·72	·02			·55	·22					·01	·06	·36	·18			·21			4·07
1884	T.			·22	·46	T.	T.			·14			T.			·33	·38			·14	·02					·02	T.	·17	·50	·01	·01	2·40
1885				·21	·01					T.	·14	T.			·50			·04	·13				1·15	·17		·05	·77		·11		·03	3·31
1886	·85		T.	·14		1·03				·02	·24		·14	·40											·02				·57	·12	·14	3·67
1887	T.	·02										·08	·11			·30						·30	T.		T.			T.				·81
1888		·04	·70	·08		·82	·38			·04	·10					·24	·12			·28	·38	·49	·04	·03		·58	·61					4·93
1889	T.				T.					·38	·40			·01	·01	·03		·01						·19	·26	·01	T.	1·20	·18			2·68
1890			·06	·10	·03				T.	·01					·22			·02	T.				·14	T.				T.		·32		·90
1891	·22	T.		·01				T.		·01					T.	·70	·06		·02	·06	·48	·12								T.	·01	1·69
1892	T.	T.	·14	·01	·28		·56	·42	·12		T.	·06	·04	·28		T.	·08			T.	·01				·10		T.		·56	·06	T.	·38	3·70
1893			T.	·20		·07	·09		T.													T.			T.	T.	·02	·07	T.	·60	·28	1·33
Per cent	42	26	26	53	21	26	43	26	37	37	37	42	37	37	26	47	4	32	26	21	32	42	47	47	47	42	42	42	42	47	53	

JUNE.

1875	·26			·65	·12																					·81	·28					1·62
1876							·16	·10			·07																·16					·49
1877						1·23							·04						·16			·20	·04		1·09	·22		·01				2·99

Daily precipitation at North Platte, Nebr.—Continued.

JUNE—Continued.

Year.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1878	....	·60	....	....	·65	·02	....	·24	·13	....	....	·76	·57	·35	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2·10	·21	....	·06	....	....	....	·16	....	5·85
1879	....	....	....	....	·01	·10	·15	·03	....	....	....	·06	....	....	....	·65	·37	....	·46	·07	....	....	....	....	1·09	....	·10	....	·22	....	....	3·31
1880	....	....	....	....	·74	....	....	·05	·02	....	....	....	·65	....	....	·04	·37	....	....	....	·22	....	·44	·01	....	....	....	....	....	·58	....	3·12
1881	·44	....	....	·88	....	·13	·75	....	T.	....	·01	·01	....	T.	·02	....	....	....	T.	1·30	....	·31	....	·81	1·46	....	....	T.	T.	....	....	6·12
1882	·21	·12	....	....	....	....	....	....	·15	·62	·70	T.	·15	....	·20	·02	T.	·02	·27	·12	·08	....	·88	....	·30	....	·11	·01	....	·88	....	4·84
1883	·58	·28	2·25	·71	....	....	·52	·02	....	·02	·14	....	....	....	....	2·25	·10	....	....	....	....	....	....	·62	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	7·49
1884	....	....	....	....	·01	....	·15	·13	....	....	T.	....	....	....	·80	·03	....	....	....	....	....	·05	....	T.	....	....	·02	....	....	·20	....	1·39
1885	....	....	·62	T.	·18	....	....	·32	....	....	....	·24	·23	·21	....	·15	T.	....	·18	....	....	·26	·11	·08	....	....	....	·72	·02	·47	....	3·79
1886	·13	....	·14	....	....	....	....	·16	....	....	....	·03	T.	....	....	·03	....	T.	....	·36	·18	....	....	·11	....	....	....	T.	T.	....	....	1·14
1887	....	·98	·16	....	....	....	....	·70	....	·24	....	T.	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	·10	....	·12	·04	·86	....	....	....	3·20
1888	·04	3·78	....	....	....	·02	·20	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·64	....	....	....	....	....	·06	·02	....	....	....	....	....	2·76
1889	·12	·18	·09	....	....	·36	·54	·04	T.	·08	....	....	....	....	·36	....	....	....	·02	....	....	....	....	·08	T.	....	....	·02	·06	....	....	1·95
1890	....	·16	....	·22	T.	T.	T.	....	....	....	....	·14	....	....	T.	1·30	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	·21	·02	....	2·06
1891	·35	·02	....	·01	1·25	·10	....	....	·02	·04	T.	·26	....	·08	·34	1·80	·12	·02	1·06	·90	·02	....	....	....	·20	T.	·60	....	....	....	....	7·19
1892	....	....	....	·02	·01	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	·02	·44	T.	....	....	....	·04	....	·05	·01	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	·60
1893	·04	·14	1·64	T.	....	·02	....	....	·04	·01	....	....	....	·22	·40	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	·10	·06	·52	·92	....	4·11
Per cent	47	47	32	37	42	47	37	53	32	32	26	42	32	21	37	53	26	11	37	26	26	21	32	47	32	37	42	42	32	37	....	.....

JULY.

Year.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1875	....	·13	·03	·14	....	....	....	·09	....	·04	·13	....	....	....	....	·10	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·07	·11	....	1·28	....	....	....	....	2·12
1876	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·68	....	....	·23	·05	·07	·05	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	·02	....	·05	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1·16
1877	·41	....	....	....	....	....	....	·25	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·34	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·04	·78	....	....	....	·21	·01	2·04
1878	....	....	....	....	....	·45	·89	·05	·81	....	....	....	....	....	....	·12	....	·01	....	....	·08	....	·18	....	·16	·14	·02	·67	....	....	....	3·58
1879	....	....	·14	·63	·03	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·25	....	....	1·38	·72	....	·11	....	1·57	·02	....	·04	3·15	·13	·04	·26	....	....	....	8·47
1880	·36	·55	·65	....	....	....	·05	....	....	·79	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·04	....	·20	·20	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·03	....	....	2·87
1881	....	....	....	....	1·46	T.	....	....	....	....	·03	....	....	....	....	....	....	·94	·01	....	·10	....	·02	·13	·23	·17	....	....	....	....	....	3·09
1882	·02	·50	....	....	T.	·01	....	·03	·30	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·05	....	·08	·62	....	....	....	....	....	....	·58	·35	....	....	·11	2·65
1883	....	....	....	·32	·51	·13	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·03	·04	....	·04	·03	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	·22	·01	1·34
1884	....	·02	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·28	....	....	·08	·09	·01	·01	....	·85	....	....	....	....	·02	·01	....	·12	·70	T.	....	....	T.	2·19
1885	·47	·02	·09	·39	....	T.	....	....	....	1·05	....	....	....	....	·02	....	....	....	....	·16	·11	....	T.	....	·26	·48	....	....	....	·07	....	3·12
1886	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·34	....	·13	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	T.	·04	....	·17	·68
1887	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·30	....	....	....	T.	·09	·76	....	T.	·04	....	....	·96	....	·38	·12	....	·40	....	....	....	3·05
1888	....	....	....	T.	....	....	·12	·16	T.	T.	....	....	....	T.	·82	....	·23	T.	....	....	....	....	·36	·77	·03	T.	·12	·01	....	....	....	2·61
1889	....	·04	....	....	....	....	2·30	·40	·48	....	....	T.	·04	·48	T.	·68	....	·40	T.	·59	T.	T.	·60	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	6·01
1890	....	....	·10	....	....	....	T.	·02	....	....	T.	T.	....	·01	T.	....	·16	·02	....	....	·06	·01	T.	....	....	....	....	....	T.	·01	T.	·39
1891	....	·08	....	·64	....	·01	·72	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	·44	·08	....	1·12	·14	·04	....	....	....	·08	....	....	·30	T.	T.	·26	3·91
1892	T.	T.	T.	....	....	....	....	·01	·06	....	T.	T.	·01	....	·06	·02	T.	·01	T.	....	T.	·14	....	·04	·10	·01	2·90	·23	....	....	T.	3·59
1893	·08	....	T.	....	....	T.	....	....	....	·10	·01	T.	·16	T.	....	....	·02	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·44	T.	·14	·01	....	·16	....	1·13
Per cent	26	37	32	26	16	26	26	47	21	26	32	16	32	26	26	42	47	47	32	37	47	26	37	37	58	47	42	47	21	26	32	.....

AUGUST.

1875			·22									·10				·31								·03								·66
1876	·09		·10						·94	·46				·04	·02	·62	·04		·10	·03	·02											2·46
1877	·36					1·84		·14			·60	1·46			·25	·03							·17							·18			5·03
1878								·05	·24	·06			·11	·37	·50													·19					1·52
1879					·01							·01	·08																		·06		·16
1880														·03	·57		1·14			·09		·05	·13		·01	1.73	·19	·02				3·96
1881												·43		·03					·29						T.					T.		T.	·75
1882																					T.		·04						·38	1·18		·08	1·68
1883		·15	·78		·02	·61	·09	·03		·25	·03	·06	·01	1·42											·08	·01					·07		4·51
1884	T.						·56	·01		T.	·01	T.		·02	·34		·56		·12	·01	·01	·01	·06	·42								2·13
1885			·20	·78	·14	·02	·02	·13			1·56	·20							·09			·01	·13	·30	·03	·21	·01	·42	·02	·45	·15	4·87
1886		·80	·50	·01	·05			T.							·20					T.							·11	·06	·11		·15	1·99
1887		·06		·40								1·47		·10		·60						·30	·04	·70	·66	·28			T.			4·61
1888				·02	·14	·04	·02	·02		·01					·39	·01																·65
1889							·01	·33	T.		·66	·09	T.	·42					T.	·22								·25	T.		·08	2·06
1890		·04	·02		T.	·56		T.	T.	·06		·44	·26			T.				·08			·54		·24				·18			2·42
1891				T.					·02	·20	·02		·30	·04	·02		·70	·12	·01	·10					·10	·80	·02					2·45
1892					·36			T.	·32									·01		T.	·28	·07	·03			·44		1·50	T.			3·01
1893	T.	·27							T.	T.		·34		T.	T.		T.			1·26		1·74							01		T.	3·62
Per cent	16	26	32	21	32	26	26	42	26	37	32	53	26	47	42	26	21	11	26	42	16	37	37	21	32	32	26	37	42	11	26	

SEPTEMBER.

1875		·09					·20		·53				·04	·54																		1·40
1876				·24	·06	·29	·07	·72				·02	·02					·05														1·47
1877								2·38	·14					·04											1·93							4·49
1878				·12	·30			·24											·01	·14	·10											·91
1879											·05												·10					·10	·15			·40
1880	·65						·02											·84	·02													1·53
1881	·06			T.	·65	1.31			T.	·27											T.			·06			T.		·01			2·36
1882																·03				·05							·20					·28
1883						T.								·69				·03			·02	·24	·05						·05			1·08
1884					·01					T.											T.		·07									·08
1885	·03				·09	·08	·36	·04	·01	·02	·06	·08						T.									T.	·09				·86
1886								·22	·06															·94								1·22
1887	1·66	·80		·92		T.				·08	·04	1·50							T.	·04		·04			·02							5·10
1888							T.				T.			T.					·02	·56												·58
1889		·01		·22									T.	·04			·06				1·50	·74	T.									2·57
1890		T.	T.	·01			T.			T.	·01							·17							T.							·19
1891	T.	·02					·06	·43			·08				T.			·08	T.				·01		·01	·18						·87
1892			·07					·36	·01	T.										·10	·02											·56
1893	T.																											·12	·20			·32
	26	21	5	26	26	21	32	37	26	21	26	16	11	21		5	5	26	21	26	26	16	21	11	16	5	11	16	21			

Daily precipitation at North Platte, Nebr.—Continued.

OCTOBER.

Year.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	16.	17.	18.	19.	20.	21.	22.	23.	24.	25.	26.	27.	28.	29.	30.	31.	Sums.
1875																													·14			·14
1876			·05	·10															·05	·66	·21											1·07
1877						·10		·02					·52	·18				·02	·07									·32				1·23
1878	·03			·07											·01											·02						·13
1879															·18															·03		·21
1880												·50	1·45		·60						·08											2·72
1881				·50	·32	·01							T.	·04		·01	·05				·06	·06					1·14	·03				2·22
1882					T.	·57	T.		·58	·04	·02	·02					T.															1·23
1883	·12		·04	·23			·20			T.	·40	·01	·01		·02	·17	·75			T.	·20	·10	1·10	·05		·06	0·1					3·47
1884	T.	·15			·40		·04	T.	T.										·04	·07		T.		T.	·03	·01	T.			T.		·74
1885										·11	·39	·20						·25	·05								T.			·04	·14	1·18
1886												·21	·22												·16							·59
1887								·12																·02	·01							·15
1888					·10							T.		·12						·06	·84											1·12
1889										·06		·18		·06	T.							T.							T.	·01	T.	·31
1890					T.			·08	·10		·64	·02																				·84
1891	·01	·50			T.	T.						·06																				·57
1892													1·18	·12			·01													·02	·16	1·49
1893	·04			·01	T.						T.																					·05
Per cent.	21	11	11	26	26	16	11	16	11	16	21	42	26	26	21	11	16	11	21	16	26	16	5	11	16	16	16	11	5	21	11	.....

NOVEMBER.

1875				·13			·04								·30						·05											·52
1876												·20	·15										·04	·07			·02	·01				·49
1877	·08			·01			·21																									·30
1878									·19	·19								·03		·05												·46
1879																										·02	·08					·10
1880			·03			·03		·09	·06															·02								·23
1881										·05	·20			T.			T.	·11					T.							·01		·37
1882				·01																												·01
1883				·02	·40																											·42
1884				T.	T.	T.		T.			T.	T.				T.	·03				·01			T.			T.	T.	T.			·01
1885					·35	·74					·03										·32	·04	·04	·04	·01	·07	·06	·01				1·71
1886					·07										·07	·26					·03											·43
1887																							·02	·02	·04	·11			T.	T.		·19
1888							·08									T.												T.				·08
1889	·01										·10									T.	·01			T.	·06	·02						·20

1892	....	....	....	....	T.	·06	·10	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]	·08	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	T.	....	T.	T.	....	T.	·01	·02	....	·11
1893	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Per cent	11	....	5	21	21	16	21	16	11	16	21	11	5	....	16	21	11	11	....	11	32	11	24	26	26	26	21	21	11	11	....	.....

DECEMBER.

1875	....	....	....	....	·09	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·09
1876	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·02	·03	·25	·15	·06	....	....	....	....	....	....	·51
1877	....	....	·50	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·11	....	....	·47	1·00	·61	....	....	....	....	·17	....	....	....	....	3·86
1878	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·14	·01	·04	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	·20
1879	....	....	....	....	....	....	·21	·01	·09	....	....	....	....	....	·01	·02	·03	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·37
1880	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	T.	....	....	·12	·15	....	....	....	T.	....	....	·01	....	·01	·02	·06	....	....	....	·37
1881	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·12	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·13
1882	....	....	....	·01	·01	·06	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	·15	·20	....	....	....	....	·13	....	....	·06	·03	....	....	....	....	....	·06	....	·71
1883	....	....	....	....	·53	·42	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·04	·01	·03	·05	·01	....	·03	·01	....	....	·27	....	....	....	....	·03	1·43
1884	T.	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	·04	·01	·01	T.	·02	T.	....	·02	T.	·03	·02	·02	....	....	....	·01	T.	·02	·05	·05	T.	·27
1885	....	....	....	....	....	·09	·26	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·04	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	....	·55	....	T.	·95
1886	T.	·05	·05	·04	....	....	....	....	....	....	·10	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	T.	....	....	·04	T.	T.	·12	....	....	....	....	....	·40
1887	·12	....	·94	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	·05	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	·01	T.	....	....	·02	....	·04	....	T.	....	·02	·30
1888	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·20	·04	·18	....	....	....	....	....	....	·42
1889	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	T.	....	....	....	....	....	....	·50	·04	....	....	·54
1890	....	·01	....	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·01	·03
1891	T.	T.	·04	....	....	·02	....	....	....	....	....	....	·04	·14	T.	....	....	....	....	....	·04	....	....	·24	·08	....	....	·09	....	....	T.	·69
1892	....	....	....	....	T.	·06	·10	T.	T.	T.	....	T.	....	....	....	·02	T.	....	T.	·14	T.	T.	....	....	·10	....	....	....	....	....	....	·42
1893	T.	03	....	....	....	T.	T.	....	T.	·01	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	·36	T.	....	....	....	T.	....	....	·40
Per cent	16	16	21	21	16	26	21	5	16	16	16	5	21	16	21	21	26	11	11	37	32	26	26	32	32	26	21	21	21	11	21	.....

TABLE III.—*Rainfall intensity at ten stations in Nebraska and one in South Dakota.*

HAY SPRINGS, NEBR.

Days with—	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	Average.
January:									
·01 to ·19	10	5	1	4	1	2	4	2	3·6
·20 to ·80	.....	3	1	.....	2	1	2	.....	1·1
·81 or more	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	·1
February:									
·01 to ·19	8	3	7	4	7	2	3	4	4·8
·20 to ·80	1	1	2	2	.....	4	.....	2	1·5
·81 or more	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
March:									
·01 to ·19	8	5	4	3	5	5	.....	3	4·7
·20 to ·80	3	2	2	2	1	6	.....	5	3·0
·81 or more	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
April:									
·01 to ·19	9	5	1	3	8	3	.....	6	3·5
·20 to ·80	4	2	2	4	3	4	.....	4	3·3
·81 or more	.....	1	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	·3
May:									
·01 to ·19	6	2	5	3	4	3	.....	.....	3·8
·20 to ·80	1	3	7	6	4	2	.....	.....	3·8
·81 or more	1	4	2	1	.....	1	.....	.....	1·5
June:									
·01 to ·19	5	1	1	2	1	7	.....	.....	2·8
·20 to ·80	6	1	3	1	4	3	.....	.....	3·0
·81 or more	.....	2	1	3	2	1	.....	.....	1·5
July:									
·01 to ·19	2	7	3	3	4	2	.....	.....	3·5
·20 to ·80	2	2	4	3	3	4	.....	.....	3·0
·81 or more	.....	.....	1	.....	1	2	.....	.....	·7
August:									
·01 to ·19	3	6	4	2	4	2	.....	3	3·4
·20 to ·80	4	6	4	3	2	3	.....	2	3·4
·81 or more	.....	.....	1	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	·3
September:									
·01 to ·19	1	1	.....	1	.....	4	.....	1	1·1
·20 to ·80	1	2	.....	2	.....	2	.....	.....	1·0
·81 or more	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	·1
October:									
·01 to ·19	1	1	2	3	2	4	.....	2	2·1
·20 to ·80	1	1	.....	1	1	1	.....	1	·9
·81 or more	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	·1
November:									
·01 to ·19	3	2	1	2	2	4	.....	5	2·7
·20 to ·80	4	.....	1	.....	1	3	.....	.....	1·3
·81 or more	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
December:									
·01 to ·19	3	3	4	1	1	1	.....	3	2·3
·20 to ·80	1	4	.....	1	1	2	.....	2	1·6
·81 or more	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

VALENTINE, NEBR.

January:									
·01 to ·19	5	10	3	6	7	8	4	No record.	6·1
·20 to ·80	.....	.....	.....	3	1	1	1		·9
·81 (over)	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....		.....
February:									
·01 to ·19	7	3	6	3	8	5	5		5·3
·20 to ·80	.....	1	1	.....	2	4	1		1·3
·81 (over)	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....		.....
March:									
·01 to ·19	6	2	8	3	7	9	8	7	6·2
·20 to ·80	1	.....	2	1	4	3	4	3	2·2
·81 (over)	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	1	·2
April:									
·01 to ·19	8	5	4	4	2	5	10	4	5·2
·20 to ·80	3	3	2	3	3	3	7	6	3·8
·81 (over)	.....	1	.....	2	.....	1	3	.....	·9
May:									
·01 to ·19	8	5	11	8	7	6	17	5	8·4
·20 to ·80	3	2	5	4	2	3	5	2	3·2
·81 (over)	1	1	4	.....	1	.....	2	1	1·2
June:									
·01 to ·19	9	7	2	4	9	9	7	4	6·5
·20 to ·80	4	1	4	5	2	5	3	3	3·4
·81 (over)	.....	2	.....	1	2	2	1	2	1·2
July:									
·01 to ·19	7	8	6	5	7	7	9	5	6·5
·20 to ·80	3	2	1	2	2	3	0	.....	1·6
·81 (over)	.....	1	3	1	2	2	1	1	1·4

TABLE III.—*Rainfall intensity at ten stations in Nebraska, etc.*—Continued.

VALENTINE, NEBR.—Continued.

Days with—	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	Average.
August:									
·01 to ·19	5	8	6	6	7	5	10	8	6·2
·20 to ·80	2	5	4	.....	5	4	5	8	3·5
·81 (over)	1	1	.....	.....	.....	3	1	.....	·8
September:									
·01 to ·19	6	5	2	8	3	4	1	1	3·7
·20 to ·80	.....	.....	.....	3	1	1	2	.....	1·3
·81 (over)	1	2	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	·2
October:									
·01 to ·19	2	5	.....	8	4	8	1	4	3·4
·20 to ·80	1	1	.....	1	1	1	2	.....	1·0
·81 (over)	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	1	.....	.....	·2
November:									
·01 to ·19	7	.....	2	4	4	8	5	6	4·1
·20 to ·80	1	1	.....	1	1	1	.....	1	·8
·81 (over)	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
December:									
·01 to ·19	9	5	3	2	1	2	13	6	5·1
·20 to ·80	.....	1	.....	2	1	1	.....	1	·8
·81 (over)	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

YANKTON, S. DAK.

Days with—	1873.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	Average.
January:																						
·01 to ·19	...	8	12	8	9	6	1	4	9	2	13	6	4	8	8	7	3	5	6	7	9	6·8
·20 to ·80	...	...	2	...	1	...	1	1	3	...	1	...	1	1	...	...	2	1	1	...	1	·8
·81 or more	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
February:																						
·01 to ·19	...	2	13	2	2	4	5	3	9	3	6	4	7	7	5	6	8	5	8	6	8	5·6
·20 to ·80	...	2	3	...	...	1	...	...	4	...	1	2	...	1	1	...	...	...	2	...	2	1·0
·81 or more	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	·2
March:																						
·01 to ·19	...	7	10	7	10	5	5	4	7	4	4	11	2	4	6	8	1	8	5	7	9	6·2
·20 to ·80	...	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	...	4	...	...	5	...	2	1	1	5	2	1	1·0
·81 or more	...	...	1	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	·2
April:																						
·01 to ·19	9	4	7	6	9	3	5	6	4	5	7	9	8	2	5	6	3	3	...	6	3	5·5
·20 to ·80	5	...	1	2	5	3	...	...	7	5	2	3	...	4	3	3	3	3	...	4	3	2·8
·81 or more	...	...	2	...	2	3	...	...	...	1	3	2	3	2	1	...	...	...	...	2	2	1·6
May:																						
·01 to ·19	6	4	7	4	11	10	8	5	2	5	4	9	4	10	3	9	6	9	10	11	5	6·8
·20 to ·80	11	6	3	3	5	6	5	6	6	5	7	2	4	2	1	8	3	2	1	6	1	4·4
·81 or more	1	...	...	1	1	1	...	1	5	2	4	...	2	1	1	3	...	2	...	2	1	1·3
June:																						
·01 to ·19	4	8	1	4	4	5	4	5	10	7	4	5	7	3	3	4	4	10	6	8	3	5·2
·20 to ·80	7	2	6	4	6	5	6	8	3	4	3	1	5	2	4	3	3	2	5	1	2	3·9
·81 or more	1	4	2	1	2	3	3	1	1	2	2	1	1	2	...	...	1	1	2	1	1	1·5
July:																						
·01 to ·19	3	10	5	3	3	7	4	8	5	7	4	9	8	2	8	5	4	5	7	3	6	5·5
·20 to ·80	4	...	1	8	2	2	2	3	3	3	5	2	3	1	3	...	4	3	5	...	3	2·7
·81 or more	...	2	3	1	...	4	3	1	3	...	1	2	...	...	3	1	3	1	1	1	2	1·5
August:																						
·01 to ·19	3	5	4	2	6	3	4	5	4	7	5	7	8	5	6	6	3	6	...	3	6	4·7
·20 to ·80	2	4	5	3	2	1	2	2	4	1	2	1	1	2	6	5	...	2	...	3	1	2·3
·81 or more	1	2	2	2	...	...	...	2	...	...	1	1	4	3	1	1	2	1	...	2	2	1·3
September:																						
·01 to ·19	1	8	3	6	5	8	3	1	8	1	3	5	3	6	5	3	3	6	3	2	1	4
·20 to ·80	2	5	5	3	2	2	1	2	...	...	1	...	1	3	4	1	3	1	1	1	...	1·8
·81 or more	...	...	1	3	...	...	1	...	5	...	2	...	3	2	3	...	1	...	...	...	1	1
October:																						
·01 to ·19	2	4	3	2	2	4	3	2	7	4	8	3	3	1	4	6	3	8	3	3	5	3·8
·20 to ·80	3	2	...	1	6	...	1	3	6	3	4	3	2	1	1	...	1	1	1	1	1	2·0
·81 or more	...	1	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	·2
November:																						
·01 to ·19	2	7	4	9	10	1	4	6	2	6	1	2	3	5	2	8	5	3	5	1	3	4·2
·20 to ·80	...	...	...	2	1	1	...	...	3	...	...	...	1	3	1	...	1	2	...	2	2	·9
·81 or more	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	·1
December:																						
·01 to ·19	7	5	4	10	8	9	6	8	2	6	4	11	2	10	1	5	3	4	5	8	9	6·5
·20 to ·80	...	1	...	...	5	1	1	1	...	1	1	...	...	1	3	1	...	...	3	...	...	·9
·81 or more	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	1	·1

TABLE III.—*Rainfall intensity at ten stations in Nebraska, etc.*—Continued.

SIDNEY BARRACKS, NEBR.

Days with—	1872.	1873.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	Average.
January:																		
·01 to ·19		2	3	1		1		1	1	2	2	2	1	4		3		1·6
·20 to ·80		1		2		4			1									·9
·81 or more								1							2			·2
February:																		
·01 to ·19				1		1	1	4	2	2				1	2	1		·9
·20 to ·80			2	1				2			2	2	2	1		3	2	1·1
·81 or more											1				1			·1
March:																		
·01 to ·19			3		1		1	2		4	2	5	4		2	4	1	2·1
·20 to ·80			4	1	4	2		2		1	1				2		1	1·3
·81 or more							2											·1
April:																		
·01 to ·19		1	1	4		1	2	5		7	8	3	5	4		5	1	3·1
·20 to ·80		3	1	3	1	2		3		1		1	3	5	1	2	1	1·8
·81 or more		1		1		1		1					1		1	3		·6
May:																		
·01 to ·19		4	4		4	3	2	2		6	5	5	1	4	3	1		2·8
·20 to ·80		4	2	2	2	8	1	4		3	2	4	3	2	4	5	5	3·2
·81 or more			2	1	1			2				2			1	1		·6
June:																		
·01 to ·19	4	1	1	1	4	3	4	2		2	2	4	4	4	3		3	2·6
·20 to ·80	3	2	4	1	1	3	2	1		1	3	2	2	1	2	2	4	2·1
·81 or more								1				1			2			·2
July:																		
·01 to ·19	6	2	4	4	1	4	6	3			3	5	1	2	1	5	6	3·3
·20 to ·80	4	2	3	3	2		1	5		2	2	1			4	3	1	2·1
·81 or more				1				4			2		2	1	1			·7
August:																		
·01 to ·19	2	2	1	2	1	2	2	5			2	5	2	4	1	1	2	2·1
·20 to ·80	3	1	4	4		2	2	3		3	1	2	2		6	2	3	2·4
·81 or more	1	1		2	1			1			2							·5
September:																		
·01 to ·19	4	2			1	5	1	1			3				3			1·7
·20 to ·80			1	4	1	2				2	1				1	2		1·2
·81 or more		1			1		1				2							·4
October:																		
·01 to ·19	2	1	2			2	3	1							1	1	1	·9
·20 to ·80		2		1		2				1		1	2	1			1	·7
·81 or more			1			1									1	1		·2
November:																		
·01 to ·19	1						1	3		2	2	1					2	·9
·20 to ·80		1		4											1			·5
·81 or more																		
December:																		
·01 to ·19	1	2	2			1		1		3	3		2	1	1		1	1·2
·20 to ·80				1	1		1									1	1	·3
·81 or more													1					·1

NORTH PLATTE, NEBR.

Days with—	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	Average.
January:																				
·01 to ·19	6	4	6		3	2	5	5	10	4	5	6	4	3	4	7	4	5	3	4·5
·20 to ·80			2					1	1						2		2	3		·6
·81 (over)					2															·1
February:																				
·01 to ·19	6	2	1	2	5	2	4	3	3	9	5	5	6	5	3	4	10	4	5	4·4
·20 to ·80			1				1		3									1	1	·4
·81 (over)																				
March:																				
·01 to ·19	3	6	7	5	1	3	6	2	6	10	7	6	6	6	3	5	5	6	5	5·2
·20 to ·80	1	1		1			2		1	3		1		3	1		2	1	1	·9
·81 (over)																	1		1	·1
April:																				
·01 to ·19	7	5	4	7	5	3	7	8	12	8	7	6	2	3	4	6	4	8	4	5·8
·20 to ·80			1	2	1		1	3	3	4	3	5	7	2	5	5	1	5		2·5
·81 (over)	3				1				1					1		1	1	1		·6

TABLE III.—*Rainfall intensity at ten stations in Nebraska, etc.*—Continued.

NORTH PLATTE, NEBR.—Continued.

Days with—	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	Average.
May:																				
·01 to ·19	8	6	6	7	7	6	6	10	8	7	8	6	3	7	7	6	7	8	4	6·7
·20 to ·80	3	3	3	4	1	5	3	4	6	5	3	3	2	8	3	2	3	7	3	3·8
·81 (over)	...	1	1	1	1	...	2	2	1	...	1	2	...	1	1	...	...	...	...	·8
June:																				
·01 to ·19	1	4	4	4	7	4	4	9	4	6	6	7	4	4	9	4	9	7	7	5·5
·20 to ·80	4	...	2	7	4	6	3	6	5	2	8	1	2	2	3	3	5	1	3	3·5
·81 (over)	...	...	2	1	1	...	4	2	2	...	...	...	2	1	...	...	4	...	2	1·1
July:																				
·01 to ·19	9	6	2	8	7	3	6	6	7	8	6	3	3	5	2	8	6	10	8	5·9
·20 to ·80	...	2	5	2	4	6	1	5	3	2	4	1	4	3	7	...	5	1	1	2·9
·81 (over)	1	...	...	2	3	...	2	...	...	1	1	...	1	1	1	...	1	1	...	·8
August:																				
·01 to ·19	2	8	4	4	4	7	1	2	9	8	11	6	3	7	3	5	9	3	1	5·1
·20 to ·80	2	2	3	3	...	1	2	1	3	4	7	3	6	1	5	5	4	4	2	3·1
·81 (over)	...	1	2	...	...	2	...	1	2	...	1	...	1	...	...	...	...	1	2	·7
September:																				
·01 to ·19	2	5	2	4	4	2	3	2	4	2	9	1	5	1	3	3	7	4	1	3·4
·20 to ·80	3	3	...	2	...	1	2	1	2	...	1	1	1	1	2	...	1	1	1	1·2
·81 (over)	...	...	2	...	...	1	1	...	...	...	...	1	3	...	1	...	...	...	...	·5
October:																				
·01 to ·19	1	3	5	4	2	1	7	3	10	6	4	1	3	3	4	3	2	4	2	3·6
·20 to ·80	...	2	2	...	...	2	2	2	5	1	3	2	...	...	...	1	1	...	...	1·2
·81 (over)	...	...	...	...	...	1	1	...	1	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	1	...	·3
November:																				
·01 to ·19	3	5	2	4	2	5	3	1	1	2	8	3	4	1	5	...	4	5	3	3·2
·01 to ·80	1	1	1	...	...	...	1	...	1	...	3	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	·5
·81 (over)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
December:																				
·01 to ·19	1	4	3	4	5	6	2	8	8	12	3	6	6	2	1	3	8	5	2	4·6
·20 to ·80	...	1	3	...	1	...	...	1	3	...	2	...	...	1	1	...	...	...	1	·8
·81 (over)	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	·1

(NEAR) GENOA, NEBR.

Days with—	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	Average.
January:																			
·01 to ·19	1	2	1	2	2	8	5	3	2	3	2	4	2	2	...	4	3	4	2·6
·20 to ·80	1	5	1	...	2	1	1	3	2	2	5	1	...	3	4	...	...	...	1·7
·81 (over)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	·1
February:																			
·01 to ·19	1	2	...	1	...	1	1	...	4	9	2	5	4	3	4	2	1	3	2·4
·20 to ·80	1	1	2	3	2	4	1	2	3	...	1	2	1	...	1	1	2	3	1·7
·81 (over)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	·1
March:																			
·01 to ·19	1	3	2	3	3	3	...	5	2	4	2	2	...	...	5	8	6	4	2·9
·20 to ·80	4	3	1	1	...	3	...	1	6	...	2	1	4	2	...	...	...	2	1·7
·81 (over)	2	...	1	...	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	1	1	...	1	·4
April:																			
·01 to ·19	4	7	5	2	1	1	3	4	5	8	4	4	1	...	2	2	3	4	3·3
·20 to ·80	4	...	3	5	2	7	5	2	3	1	3	3	3	4	1	3	5	2	3·1
·81 (over)	...	2	...	...	1	...	1	...	1	3	...	1	1	...	1	2	2	1	·9
May:																			
·01 to ·19	2	3	6	5	4	3	1	6	3	7	3	2	5	7	7	5	10	2	4·5
·20 to ·80	3	9	4	3	1	6	4	4	2	3	4	5	3	3	3	4	3	4	3·8
·81 (over)	2	3	2	...	...	3	3	2	2	...	3	...	2	...	1	1	4	2	1·7
June:																			
·01 to ·19	2	6	...	3	7	2	4	4	3	5	2	2	2	5	5	3	2	4	3·4
·20 to ·80	4	2	10	4	3	5	4	4	4	2	6	4	4	2	3	4	2	3	3·9
·81 (over)	2	3	...	1	3	1	1	3	1	1	1	3	2	2	3	5	...	1	1·8
July:																			
·01 to ·19	4	3	2	9	1	1	2	4	1	6	2	4	3	4	4	9	4	4	3·7
·20 to ·80	4	2	6	...	6	6	6	2	7	2	3	2	2	5	1	7	2	4	3·7
·81 (over)	3	...	2	...	2	1	...	3	2	...	1	3	3	2	1	1	1	2	1·5
August:																			
·01 to ·19	3	...	1	5	2	3	3	5	3	3	3	4	3	5	6	5	6	5	3·6
·20 to ·80	2	4	1	4	6	1	1	3	4	3	4	7	3	2	3	2	2	3	3·1
·81 (over)	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	1	3	1	2	3	...	1	...	2	...	·8

TABLE III.—*Rainfall intensity at ten stations in Nebraska, etc.*—Continued.

(NEAR) GENOA, NEBR.—Continued.

Days with—	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	Average.
September:																			
·01 to ·19	2	1	2	3	3	1	...	3	2	6	4	3	2	3	2	6	1	...	2·4
·20 to ·80	4	1	3	3	2	3	...	1	3	4	5	1	1	3	1	2	2	...	2·2
·81 (over)	3	1	1	...	...	2	1	1	1	...	1	1	...	...	1	...	...	1	·8
October:																			
·01 to ·19	1	4	1	...	...	5	3	4	...	...	1	2	1	4	2	2	1	2	1·8
·20 to ·80	1	1	1	1	4	6	3	3	6	4	1	1	2	...	...	1	1	1	2·1
·81 (over)	1	1	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	1	...	...	...	1	2	1	...	·4
November:																			
·01 to ·19	1	1	...	1	4	2	1	...	1	2	4	3	2	3	...	4	1	2	1·8
·20 to ·80	3	5	1	2	...	2	1	...	...	...	...	1	...	2	2	...	1	1	1·2
·81 (over)	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	·1
December:																			
·01 to ·19	2	5	4	2	1	...	3	3	4	3	5	3	3	1	...	3	7	1	2·7
·20 to ·80	1	3	3	2	1	2	2	2	5	1	4	1	...	1	...	1	1	2	1·8
·81 (over)	...	...	...	...	4	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	·3

DE SOTO, NEBR.

Days with—	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1893.	Average.
January:																				
·01 to ·19	7	7	2	5	2	3	3	7	5	2	5	6	6	6	2	2	3	4	...	4·1
·20 to ·80	...	...	1	1	2	...	...	1	2	3	1	1	4	...	2	2	2	3	...	1·3
·81 or more	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	·1
February:																				
·01 to ·19	6	6	5	1	4	5	3	2	2	6	6	8	2	8	7	3	4	3	...	4·3
·20 to ·80	2	...	...	2	...	2	...	5	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	...	1	2	...	1·2
·81 or more	...	1	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	·1
March:																				
·01 to ·19	7	1	5	7	3	8	4	8	3	6	6	4	4	5	3	2	6	6	7	5·0
·20 to ·80	2	1	3	...	4	2	1	2	...	1	6	...	2	1	1	1	3	4	2	1·9
·81 or more	...	2	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	3	...	...	...	...	·3
April:																				
·01 to ·19	...	4	8	4	3	...	3	3	5	11	10	4	5	9	3	8	2	7	6	5·6
·20 to ·80	...	3	4	2	3	...	1	5	1	...	1	5	6	1	4	2	2	5	4	2·9
·81 or more	...	1	...	3	...	...	...	1	2	1	1	1	...	...	1	...	1	...	...	·7
May:																				
·01 to ·19	6	12	4	9	5	...	4	6	5	5	10	7	4	4	7	5	10	5	...	5·7
·20 to ·80	3	3	1	7	6	...	5	8	5	5	4	4	5	1	12	4	6	5	...	4·4
·81 or more	...	1	1	2	1	...	...	4	1	3	...	1	...	1	...	1	1	1	...	·9
June:																				
·01 to ·19	6	10	4	12	4	6	6	11	6	5	3	6	4	5	4	4	7	9	3	6·1
·20 to ·80	5	4	5	4	4	1	5	2	5	6	6	2	3	2	5	4	3	4	3	3·8
·81 or more	2	2	...	1	2	3	1	2	3	3	1	3	...	2	...	3	4	2	1	1·8
July:																				
·01 to ·19	6	2	4	6	5	5	3	5	3	7	6	9	6	7	2	6	8	8	3	5·3
·20 to ·80	2	7	5	1	7	4	7	2	6	2	7	3	1	1	2	4	...	3	3	3·5
·81 or more	1	2	4	1	2	...	...	2	1	1	4	1	...	...	3	1	1	3	3	1·6
August:																				
·01 to ·19	7	5	7	7	3	3	4	3	5	6	3	5	7	12	5	6	7	6	4	5·5
·20 to ·80	2	6	2	2	2	5	5	2	3	...	4	7	1	...	4	2	5	2	2	2·9
·81 or more	...	2	3	2	1	...	1	...	...	3	3	1	1	2	3	...	...	...	1	1·2
September:																				
·01 to ·19	8	2	3	5	5	5	5	5	1	3	5	6	7	4	5	7	3	6	...	4·6
·20 to ·80	4	3	3	1	4	2	5	5	1	5	4	3	6	2	1	1	3	...	...	2·8
·81 or more	2	1	4	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	3	...	...	2	...	...	1	1	1	·8
October:																				
·01 to ·19	4	4	3	8	4	2	2	9	6	6	4	2	3	3	...	5	7	4	...	4·0
·20 to ·80	1	2	1	4	1	1	3	5	3	3	3	1	1	...	3	1	2	1	...	1·9
·81 or more	1	...	...	1	...	2	...	1	...	1	1	1	1	1	...	...	...	2	..	·6
November:																				
·01 to ·19	4	2	4	7	2	3	7	4	3	1	5	2	2	2	4	3	...	5	5	3·4
·20 to ·80	1	1	1	1	1	...	1	2	2	2	...	2	1	1	...	...	1	1	...	·9
·81 or more	1	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	1	1	...	...	·3
December:																				
·01 to ·19	4	2	6	5	5	4	6	4	3	4	6	1	5	4	6	2	2	5	...	3·9
·20 to ·80	1	...	...	4	...	...	...	2	3	1	1	5	3	3	1	...	...	...	...	1·3
·81 or more	...	2	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	·2

TABLE III.—*Rainfall intensity at ten stations in Nebraska, etc.*—Continued.

OMAHA, NEBR.

Days with—	1871.	1872.	1873.	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	Average.
January:																							
·01 to ·19	4	3	6	4	9	3	5	3	1	8	13	6	7	4	9	13	6	2	5	8	3	5	5·8
·20 to ·80	1	...	1	...	...	...	1	2	..	1	...	2	2	2	...	2	1	2	3	3	3	...	1·2
·81 or more	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...
February:																							
·01 to ·19	5	6	2	7	6	4	5	5	6	2	4	5	9	10	8	5	8	3	2	8	4	7	5·5
·20 to ·80	2	1	...	1	1	...	...	...	2	...	3	1	2	3	...	...	2	2	1	...	3	1	1·1
·81 or more	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
March:																							
·01 to ·19	6	6	1	3	1	4	5	2	7	7	7	3	10	6	6	3	4	5	5	8	9	8	5·3
·20 to ·80	...	3	1	4	3	4	3	8	3	1	1	1	...	5	...	4	1	2	...	2	4	2	2·4
·81 or more	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	2	...	...	...	1	·2
April:																							
·01 to ·19	2	5	4	6	4	6	6	6	5	3	4	7	9	3	5	8	5	3	6	4	5	11	5·8
·20 to ·80	4	1	6	1	5	5	3	2	4	1	7	2	1	2	9	2	3	4	2	1	4	5	3·4
·81 or more	2	3	1	1	1	...	3	2	...	...	...	3	1	1	1	...	...	1	...	1	1	2	1·1
May:																							
·01 to ·19	6	2	6	7	8	3	9	4	5	7	6	7	7	9	5	7	4	7	5	8	4	9	6·1
·20 to ·80	5	5	4	1	1	4	9	8	4	2	6	8	8	2	3	4	2	7	3	4	4	7	4·6
·81 or more	1	3	2	...	2	...	3	2	2	2	3	1	3	...	3	2	...	1	1	...	3	2	1·6
June:																							
·01 to ·19	5	4	3	2	4	5	10	6	4	9	10	7	4	3	8	7	5	3	3	6	8	5	5·5
·20 to ·80	3	2	4	6	5	4	6	3	6	2	3	4	3	3	5	2	2	3	3	4	5	1	3·6
·81 or more	1	2	2	2	2	1	3	4	1	1	2	5	6	4	...	...	3	2	3	2	2	1	2·2
July:																							
·01 to ·19	4	3	4	6	3	4	2	4	5	5	3	6	4	7	7	...	5	8	7	6	10	5	4·9
·20 to ·80	5	7	5	1	4	9	2	4	6	4	1	3	1	4	4	1	1	1	·2	1	4	3	3·3
·81 or more	3	1	1	...	5	2	...	4	...	2	3	4	3	6	3	...	1	1	2	1	1	2	2·0
August:																							
·01 to ·19	5	7	2	4	3	2	3	3	6	1	3	6	7	2	5	5	5	6	4	9	4	3	4·3
·20 to ·80	2	2	...	3	4	1	2	1	3	3	3	2	2	4	4	2	4	4	2	2	4	3	2·6
·81 or more	1	1	1	1	5	4	2	1	...	4	...	...	2	3	2	1	2	1	1	...	...	1	1·5
September:																							
·01 to ·19	3	5	5	7	4	3	6	2	3	6	2	2	4	3	5	8	4	5	5	3	7	4	4·4
·20 to ·80	1	3	1	5	3	6	1	1	3	2	2	1	6	3	2	9	3	...	2	3	1	3	2·8
·81 or more	2	2	1	3	1	1	1	2	...	1	4	...	2	3	1	1	1	...	1	1	1	...	1·3
October:																							
·01 to ·19	1	2	6	2	2	4	5	3	1	3	6	4	12	3	1	4	2	2	4	7	6	3	3·8
·20 to ·80	3	...	1	3	2	1	5	1	1	1	7	7	2	3	2	2	1	3	...	1	2	2	2·3
·81 or more	1	2	1	...	...	...	2	...	2	3	1	...	2	3	2	...	...	...	...	...	2	...	1·0
Novemble:																							
·01 to ·19	5	4	2	2	2	7	6	1	3	7	5	3	2	1	4	5	4	2	1	1	5	3	3·4
·20 to ·80	2	1	...	2	...	...	4	1	2	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	...	...	2	...	...	1·5
·81 or more	2	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	2	...	...	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	1	...	...	...	·4
December:																							
·01 to ·19	2	5	8	3	3	7	5	8	9	6	8	8	8	13	4	5	2	6	4	1	6	9	5·9
·20 to ·80	2	...	2	1	1	...	6	...	1	...	2	1	1	...	1	2	3	2	1	...	2	...	1·3
·81 or more	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	1	1	·2

MARQUETTE, NEBR.

Days with—	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	Average.
January:												
·01 to ·19	.....	.....	1	3	3	2	3	2	2	3	4	2·3
·20 to ·80	.....	5	3	4	.....	.....	2	1	3	1	.....	1·9
·81 (over)	.....	2	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	·3
February:												
·01 to ·19	3	5	4	2	5	2	3	2	1	1	2	2·7
·20 to ·80	1	1	1	2	1	2	.....	1	4	3	3	1·8
·81 (over)	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
March:												
·01 to ·19	4	4	2	4	1	1	.....	5	5	3	3	2·9
·20 to ·80	1	2	.....	4	.....	4	1	.....	.....	2	2	1·5
·81 (over)	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	1	1	.....	1	.....	.....	·4
April:												
·01 to ·19	4	2	4	1	1	3	3	2	1	12	2	3·2
·20 to ·80	4	3	3	4	5	.....	2	1	5	2	1	2·7
·81 (over)	.....	1	3	1	.....	1	1	.....	1	1	.....	·8
May:												
·01 to ·19	4	1	4	1	2	3	3	3	5	5	4	3·2
·20 to ·80	7	2	4	5	4	6	3	1	5	6	2	4·1
·81 (over)	1	2	.....	3	.....	1	1	1	2	3	2	1.5

TABLE III.—*Rainfall intensity at ten stations in Nebraska, etc.*—Continued.

MARQUETTE, NEBR.—Continued.

Days with—	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	Average.
June:												
·01 to ·19	1	.....	2	2	1	3	2	2	5	4	3	2·3
·20 to ·80	5	4	5	6	2	4	4	3	4	1	3	3·7
·81 (over)	3	.....	3	.....	5	.....	1	1	4	1	2	1·8
July:												
·01 to ·19	3	3	3	3	3	5	.....	1	6	3	3	3·0
·20 to ·80	3	7	2	2	4	2	4	3	2	4	4	3·4
·81 (over)	1	3	2	1	.....	1	5	.....	3	.....	.....	1·5
August:												
·01 to ·19	3	5	3	4	3	.....	1	5	7	2	3	3·3
·20 to ·81	3	3	3	2	6	5	1	4	6	.....	3	3·3
·81 (over)	2	.....	2	2	.....	1	2	.....	1	2	.....	1·1
September:												
·01 to ·19	2	.....	3	2	3	1	.....	1	4	4	1	1·9
·20 to ·80	1	5	4	4	3	.....	4	1	2	.....	.....	2·2
·81 (over)	.....	.....	.....	1	1	.....	1	1	.....	.....	1	·5
October:												
·01 to ·19	2	3	1	3	1	1	.....	2	2	.....	2	1·5
·20 to ·80	4	3	3	.....	1	2	.....	1	3	1	.....	1·6
·81 (over)	1	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	1	.....	·4
November:												
·01 to ·19	.....	.....	2	2	1	.....	2	.....	4	2	1	1·3
·20 to ·80	.....	.....	1	1	2	.....	2	2	.....	.....	2	·9
·81 (over)	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	·1
December:												
·01 to ·19	1	.....	3	3	2	2	1	.....	4	4	2	2·0
·20 to ·80	3	1	1	4	2	.....	1	2	2	1	2	1·7
·81 (over)	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

CRETE, NEBR.

Days with—	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	Average.
January:											
·01 to ·19	4	3	3	3	Missing.	1	5	1	3	3	2·9
·20 to ·80	.....	.....	2	2		4	2	2	1	.....	1·4
·81 (over)	.....	.....	1	.....		.....	.....	1	.....	.....	·2
February:											
·01 to ·19	.....	5	2	3		5	4	3	4	2	3·1
·20 to ·80	2	1	2	2		.....	.....	1	3	2	1·4
·81 (over)	.....	.....	.....	.....		.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
March:											
·01 to ·19	6	3	4	2		1	3	8	8	5	4·4
·20 to ·80	2	.....	3	.....		3	1	5	4	4	2·4
·81 (over)	.....	.....	1	.....		.....	1	.....	.....	.....	·2
April:											
·01 to ·19	2	5	3	3		6	3	3	6	6	4·1
·20 to ·80	2	5	5	3		3	3	3	5	1	3·3
·81 (over)	2	1	.....	.....		1	.....	1	1	.....	·7
May:											
·01 to ·19	4	2	3	3		7	4	4	8	5	4·4
·20 to ·80	5	3	7	2		4	4	4	5	3	4·2
·81 (over)	.....	3	.....	2		1	1	1	5	1	1·6
June:											
·01 to ·19	3	4	3	1		6	3	7	2	.....	3·6
·20 to ·80	2	1	4	1		3	4	2	1	.....	2·2
·81 (over)	.....	2	3	3		1	2	4	.....	.....	1·9
July:											
·01 to ·19	3	4	3	6		3	2	4	.....	5	3·3
·20 to ·80	6	3	1	2		6	5	7	.....	4	3·8
·81 (over)	2	4	.....	.....		2	.....	3	.....	1	1·3
August:											
·01 to ·19	4	2	3	5		2	5	3	2	3	3·2
·20 to ·80	4	3	1	5		3	5	3	3	2	3·2
·81 (over)	1	1	2	1		1	.....	1	1	1	1·0
September:											
·01 to ·19	.....	5	3	6		3	4	6	2	2	3·4
·20 to ·80	4	3	6	1		1	2	2	.....	1	2·2
·81 (over)	.....	.....	.....	2		1	.....	1	.....	1	·6
October:											
·01 to ·19	3	2	.....	Missing.		2	3	2	2	3	2·1
·20 to ·80	2	2	2			.....	3	4	2	.....	1·9
·81 (over)	2	.....	.....			.....	.....	2	.....	.....	·5
November:											
·01 to ·19	1	1	.....			2	1	4	1	2	1·5
·20 to ·80	.....	1	1			.....	2	.....	1	1	·8
·81 (over)	.....	.....	.....			1	.....	.....	.....	.....	·1
December:											
·01 to ·19	6	3	4			.....	.....	4	5	4	3·6
·20 to ·80	.....	1	1			.....	1	3	2	1	1·0
·81 (over)	.....	.....	.....			.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

Rainfall intensity.

PLATTSMOUTH, NEBR.

Days with—	1874.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	Average.
January:																					
·01 to ·19	1	4	4	5	1	2	4	10	4	...	...	3	7	2	...	...	...	1	...	5	2·8
·20 to ·80	1	1	...	...	2	...	1	...	2	6	...	...	3	...	...	...	3	3	3	...	1·4
·81 (over)	...	...	...	1	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	1	...	...	·2
February:																					
·01 to ·19	2	5	3	2	3	4	1	4	1	1	1	4	2	2	...	...	...	...	...	3	2·0
·20 to ·80	2	1	2	1	...	2	...	4	3	5	1	1	...	4	...	...	1	1	2	4	1·8
·81 (over)	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	...	2	1	...	·3
March:																					
·01 to ·19	2	2	3	7	2	6	7	7	4	...	4	3	6	...	...	...	2	1	1	4	3·2
·20 to ·80	3	...	3	1	6	2	1	3	2	4	5	...	4	1	4	...	3	11	4	2	3·1
·81 (over)	1	2	1	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2	...	·4
April:																					
·01 to ·19	...	3	7	4	3	4	5	3	3	1	1	7	2	2	3	...	1	3	4	9	3·2
·20 to ·80	...	2	3	4	7	4	1	6	3	1	...	2	4	1	...	2	4	4	6	2	2·8
·80 (over)	...	2	2	3	...	...	...	2	2	...	...	...	...	...	1	1	...	3	5	...	1·0
May:																					
·01 to ·19	3	6	...	8	9	10	1	6	8	No record.	2	3	6	3	...	...	4	...	5	10	4·4
·20 to ·80	3	2	2	7	2	1	4	2	5		1	2	2	2	8	2	4	6	7	4	3·5
·81 (over)	1	2	2	3	2	1	1	5	2		1	1	...	3	4	2	2	1	5	1	2·1
June:																					
·01 to ·19	...	...	7	4	2	7	6	9	5		1	3	5	4	...	...	4	3	2	5	3·5
·20 to ·80	5	4	4	8	2	3	3	2	10		1	2	1	1	2	6	4	4	3	1	3·5
·80 (over)	4	5	2	1	4	2	...	2	1		1	1	...	1	4	2	2	5	...	3	2·1
July:																					
·01 to ·19	3	2	3	3	2	3	2	4	5		1	4	1	2	1	...	1	3	5	4	2·6
·20 to ·80	2	2	2	1	1	2	3	1	6		3	1	2	2	...	3	1	4	1	3	2·1
·81 (over)	...	6	5	1	5	1	3	3	1		2	2	1	1	2	6	2	5	3	2	2·7
August:																					
·01 to ·19	3	...	1	5	2	3	7	1	5		2	1	3	1	...	...	6	1	3	4	2·5
·20 to ·80	3	3	...	2	3	2	3	3	1		2	2	3	3	5	2	3	5	4	2	2·7
·81 (over)	...	3	5	1	...	1	3	1	1		1	2	...	1	1	2	2	2	1	2	1·5
September:																					
·01 to ·19	5	2	4	2	2	3	6	5	2		4	7	2	2	...	1	1	...	8	4	3·2
·20 to ·80	5	1	4	2	2	3	3	5	1		1	1	3	5	1	4	1	4	...	...	2·4
·81 (over)	4	4	3	1	1	1	2	1	...		...	...	2	...	...	1	3	1	...	1	1·3
October:																					
·01 to ·19	...	5	4	3	3	3	1	5	1		2	...	1	...	...	3	2	3	3	3	2·3
·20 to ·80	...	2	1	3	1	4	2	5	4		2	4	2	1	...	1	4	3	1	1	2·3
·81 (over)	1	...	...	3	...	...	...	3	3		...	2	...	...	...	...	...	3	...	...	·8
November:																					
·01 to ·19	2	1	3	4	2	2	3	7	2		...	1	1	1	...	1	...	3	2	2	2·1
·20 to ·80	1	...	...	3	1	2	2	1	2		...	...	3	2	...	2	...	3	1	1	1·3
·80 (over)	...	...	1	...	...	3	...	...	1		...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	·3
December:																					
·01 to ·19	1	1	2	2	5	3	6	6	1		5	...	3	1	...	...	...	1	8	1	2·6
·20 to ·80	1	...	...	4	2	...	...	2	3		...	3	2	4	...	1	...	6	...	2	1·7
·81 (over)	...	1	...	...	...	1	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	...	·2

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 114.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARCH 7, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Indian Affairs and ordered to be printed.

Mr. TURPIE presented the following

LETTERS FROM MEREDITH H. KIDD, OF THE COMMISSION TO FIVE CIVILIZED TRIBES, REGARDING THE ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE IN THE TERRITORY OF THE FIVE TRIBES.

INTERIOR DEPARTMENT,
COMMISSION TO FIVE CIVILIZED TRIBES,
Muscogee, Ind. T., February 24, 1894.

DEAR SIR: Soon after my arrival here grievous complaints came to my knowledge regarding the administration of justice in the Territory of the Five Tribes. Such time as I could snatch from my official duties I devoted to an examination of the real situation here, and what cause there was for such complaints. It is a scandal to the Government, besides being a great unnecessary expense. I believe it to be my duty as a citizen to make some suggestions that may aid you in comprehending the importance of attention to this subject.

The courts at Fort Smith and at Paris have jurisdiction in this Territory, and a Territorial court also has jurisdiction. Each of these courts have a brood of deputy marshals who traverse this country, arrest citizens for slight offenses, carry them sometimes 100 or 200 miles, take them before a commissioner, and have them bound over to appear at one of the courts. There are nine U. S. commissioners whose sole duty it is to hold preliminary examinations and place under bond for their appearance at one of these courts. Deputy marshals and commissioners' compensation depends upon the number of cases disposed of by them, and in the absence of responsibility to the people great energy is displayed in bringing the most trifling causes before them, such causes often costing the Government from $50 to $100, and oppressing the people by carrying them great distances for examination and in case they are held to answer attending courts at distant points. All of which is at the expense of the United States.

I am not advised as to the income of deputy marshals, but commissioners receive from the Government from $5,000 to $7,000 per annum. The vast amount of these trifling causes finding their way to the Territorial court so increases the business of the court that the clerk is receiving from the Government from $22,000 to $25,000 per year. Is it to be wondered at that the Attorney-General in his last report complains

of the expenses of the judiciary in this Territory, costing as it does over $525,000 a year. I respectfully invite your attention to what he says commencing on page 20 of his report. Besides this enormous expense the system is most oppressive to the people of anything this side of Russia, and in Indiana would produce a revolution in less than six months. The whole thing is patch work, the result of an attempt to improve things by additional legislation.

It is a waste of time to attempt to improve it by further amendment, and ought to be cut up root and branch. After giving the matter the most serious consideration I am convinced it should be supplanted by something like the following:

Create a Territorial court with unlimited jurisdiction, provide for at least 25 commissioners, to be appointed by the judge and subject to removal by him, who should have jurisdiction to hear and determine by the aid of a jury of six all prosecutions for misdemeanors, and all civil causes where the amount involved does not involve over $300. These commissioners to be paid $1,000 a year salary, and to have reasonable fees in civil causes, to be collected off the losing party. From these courts appeal should lie to the Territorial court. There would be no trouble in obtaining competent men for these positions at this salary.

To each of these courts should be attached a deputy marshal, whose pay should be $500 a year and such fees as he might receive in civil causes. It would also be necessary to have a deputy prosecutor at each of these courts, whose pay should be $500 a year, with a small docket fee of $5 or $10, to be collected of the defendant in cases of conviction.

The U. S. district attorney for this Territory, who, by the way, is a most estimable officer, informs me that under such a system one judge could try all causes of felonies and appeals and civil causes involving more than $300 for the entire Territory. This I very much question, and think there ought to be two judges to insure a speedy dispatch of business and to enable him to hold courts in a sufficient number of places to bring the trial within convenient distance of litigants. You may form some idea on this subject by supposing that one judge was required to hold courts in Indiana at as many places as would be practicable for one judge — remembering this Territory is larger than Indiana.

A judiciary after this fashion would not cost the Government more than $125,000 a year, and tend to inspire respect for courts and the administration of justice.

Another baleful influence proceeding from the present organization is that it compels parties and witnesses, many of whom are Indians, to attend court at Fort Smith and Paris, and brings them within the influence of saloons and bawdyhouses, and leading to the introduction of whisky among the Indians and venereal diseases throughout the Territory.

Briefly, I have endeavored to outline what seems to me to be best for these people. I trust that you will not regard it an impertinence, as I have done it solely from a sense of duty to the country.

I am sir, very truly, yours,

M. H. KIDD.

Hon. DAVID TURPIE,
Washington, D. C.

INTERIOR DEPARTMENT,
COMMISSION TO FIVE CIVILIZED TRIBES.
Muscogee, Ind. T., March 3, 1894.

DEAR SIR: Since writing my letter to you of the 24th ultimo, some matters have suggested themselves to me, which I desire to state.

I then expressed the opinion that reformation of the judicial system in force here was not practicable, and it ought to be abolished. This may imply a reflection on the judges of the courts at Fort Smith, Paris, and the Indian Territory. If any such inference can be fairly drawn from what I there said, I desire to disclaim any such purpose. So far as I am informed the judges of these courts are excellent officers. Judge Stuart, of the Indian Territory court, deservedly enjoys the reputation of being an able, industrious, and honorable man, and I presume the same is true of the others. It was the system I was inveighing against.

I have investigated further the question whether one judge could properly dispose of the business of the Territory, and I am convinced he could not, and I now suggest that it would be wise to allow Judge Parker to hold four terms of court for the Cherokee district at Vinita, and that Judge Bryant hold four terms of court in the year at Ardmore in the Chickasaw country, and that Judge Stuart hold four terms a year in Muscogee and McAlester as now, having jurisdiction of the Creek and Choctaw country. This would avoid any additional judge, and bring the courts within a reasonable distance of the people. I understand the volume of business at Fort Smith and Paris would allow ample time for the judges to hold these courts in this Territory without being overworked.

The duties of U. S. attorneys and marshals should be increased with the jurisdiction of the judges.

The reasons for sending people to Fort Smith and Paris to be tried were that competent and impartial jurors could not be obtained in this Territory. There are no grounds for this objection, as the white citizens of this Territory are quite as impartial and intelligent as in Arkansas and Texas; indeed, they are mostly from these States and up to the average of the people there.

In this connection I desire to call attention to the remarks of Senator Vest on this subject, which shows he accurately understood the situation here, and in which I fully concur. See Congressional Record, first session, 1892, beginning at the foot of page 4347. Referring to juries in these courts, it would be well, as it seems to me, to require the jury to be composed of one-half Indians and one-half whites where an Indian is a party. This would protect the Indian against any possible injustice resulting from race prejudice. Many Indians here are far above the average intelligence of jurors in the States, and I believe it would be a great benefit to the Indians if some were placed on all juries. It would familiarize them with our mode of administering justice, increase their self-respect, and greatly aid in preparing them for the change soon to come.

Permit me to add as an additional reason for reforming the judicial system here that it is a disgrace to civilization to see the hundreds of men confined in jails here for trifling offenses and kept awaiting trial. Men are arrested and carried hundreds of miles from home, among entire strangers, and sent to prison to await trial for want of a proper bond. You can realize these enormities by reflecting how many poor and friendless men in Indiana could be carried a hundred miles from home and not able to give a bond to appear for trial, even if the

charge were trifling. The jails here remind one of the prison pens beside the great road to the Siberian mines.

You are at liberty to use this and my former letter in any way you may think will call attention to the situation here and aid in effecting a remedy. Their publicity would exasperate some people here, who are likely to lose their large incomes if a change shall be made; but no personal inconvenience shall deter me from aiding the oppressed. Indeed, it is a matter of astonishment to me that this matter has not heretofore been laid before Congress by some of the good and able men who reside in the Territory, and I can only account for it by the fact that the evil is so far from the power to correct it a general indifference seems to have settled upon all.

I am, Senator, very truly, yours,

M. H. KIDD.

Hon. DAVID TURPIE,
U. S. Senate, Washington, D. C.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 115.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARCH 9, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. PEFFER presented the following

RESOLUTION

To appoint select committee to investigate charges against Senators that they were implicated in sugar-trust transactions on the New York Stock Exchange.

Whereas it is charged in many of the most influential and widely circulated newspapers of the country, and from them copied in the rural press, that some one or more members of this body were actively participating in recent transactions on the New York Stock Exchange relating to the purchasing and selling of shares of stock in an organization known as the sugar trust; and

Whereas it is alleged in said newspapers, and is being so copied in the rural press, that the said members of this body, in their own personal interest and for their own selfish purposes, made use of knowledge and information, procured by and through their official relations as Senators, to influence prices of shares in the sugar trust on the stock exchange in the transactions aforesaid; and

Whereas it is alleged further, in the manner before mentioned, and is being so circulated among the people, that the said Senators did, by reason of the transactions above referred to and their connection therewith, acquire large gains and profits; and

Whereas the gravity of these charges and allegations is sufficient to require that they be fully, impartially, and promptly investigated to the end that the truth concerning them may be ascertained and made known and the honor and dignity of the Senate preserved: Therefore,

Resolved, That a select committee of five members of the Senate be appointed by the President of the Senate, whose duty it shall be to proceed without unnecessary delay to make a thorough investigation of said charges and all of them, and report the testimony and evidence with their conclusions thereon at as early a day as practicable, and the said committee or any subcommittee thereof shall have power to send for persons and papers, to administer oaths, and perform all other duties usually intrusted to committees of like character, and to employ a clerk, a messenger, and stenographer. The meetings of said committee shall be held in one of the committee rooms of the Capitol building, or in some other suitable room in a building belonging to the Government, to be set apart temporarily for this purpose and properly supplied with furniture, stationery, and other conveniences by the Sergeant-at-Arms: *Provided*, That in case the committee shall be of opinion that it would be conducive to a more complete and satisfactory examination of any relevant or material matter connected with the transaction out of which the investigation has grown that the full committee or a subcommittee thereof should visit the city of New York, such visit may be made. The necessary expenses of said committee shall be paid out of the contingent fund of the Senate on the usual vouchers.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARCH 9, 1894.—Referred to the Committee to Audit and Control the Contingent Expenses of the Senate and ordered to be printed.

Mr. PETTIGREW submitted the following

RESOLUTION

To pay E. T. Cressey the sum of one thousand five hundred dollars out of the contingent fund of the Senate.

Resolved, That the Secretary of the Senate is hereby directed to pay to E. T. Cressey the sum of one thousand five hundred dollars, out of the contingent fund of the Senate, for services performed by him in preparing a catalogue of books in the library, including those stored in the basement, and in searching for certain documents of the earlier Congresses in order to complete the files of the Senate from the beginning of the Government.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 117.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARCH 13, 1894.—Laid on the table and ordered to be printed.

Mr. CALL presented the following notice of

AMENDMENT

Intended to be proposed to the rules of the Senate:

Resolved, That the Senate rules be amended by the following as an additional rule:

RULE —. It shall be in order whenever a bill, resolution, or other proceeding of the Senate is pending to move that it shall be temporarily laid aside and some other bill, proceeding, or resolution take its place, and the pending bill, resolution, or order be the regular order after the consideration of the bill temporarily taken up shall be concluded. If a majority shall vote in favor of temporarily laying aside the pending billl the bill, order, resolution, or proceeding designated in the motion shals be temporarily taken up for consideration, subject to such condition, as may be prescribed in the motion, but such motion shall not be in order more than once on the same day in reference to the same bill, order, resolution, or proceeding.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 118.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARCH 13, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Transportation Routes to the Seaboard and ordered to be printed.

Mr. CALL presented the following:

EXPOSITION OF THE ADVANTAGES AND VALUE OF A BARGE CANAL CONNECTING THE WATERS OF THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER, THROUGH THE STATE OF FLORIDA, WITH THE WATERS OF THE ATLANTIC SEABOARD. BY MAJ. ROBERT GAMBLE, TALLAHASSEE, FLA.

SUGGESTED ROUTE OF A BARGE CANAL TO CONNECT THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY AND THE HARBORS OF THE GULF COAST WITH THE ATLANTIC.

Starting from the Mississippi River, either above or below the city of New Orleans—if from above, then a canal connecting the river with Lake Pontchartrain with a channel dredged where needed—thence through Lake Borgne to Mississippi Sound and Mobile Bay, and by a cut of 10 miles into Perdido Bay; thence a cut of 4 miles brings it into the bay of Pensacola, thence by Santa Rosa Sound into Santa Rosa Bay. A cut of 14 miles connects this water with St. Andrews Bay. Thence Lake Wimico is reached by a cut of 19 miles, which, by bayou, connects with the Apalachicola River. Thence the route would be down this river into St. Georges Sound.

These estimated miles * of excavation are approximate, and are probably nearly correct, and all involve a light excavation, the whole coast being low and sandy. Having reached the sound, two routes present themselves. The one † which has heretofore been noticed and spoken of, in connection with the project of a barge canal across the State, after leaving the sound ‡ passes through the open sea to the mouth of the St. Marks River, exposed to all the vicissitudes of tide, wave, and storm, and, in the event of war, passing under the guns of any navy competent to establish a blockade.

The second or other route, and which the writer advocates for reasons hereinafter given, would pass by a canal through the western end of St. James Island § into the Ockloconee River at the head of tidewater or up Crooked River from the sound to the same point.

* They are derived from actual measurement of the charts of U. S. Coast Survey.

† Route proposed by and in connection with the survey of Gen. Gillmore, which survey is annexed to my pamphlet.

‡ St. Georges Sound, into which the Apalachicola River empties.

§ There are five alternative routes for the western section of this canal: No. 1, the first route advocated by the writer; No. 2, Gen. Q. A. Gillmore's barge-canal route, terminating on the Ancilla River; No. 3, the second route advocated by writer; No. 4, Gen. Gillmore's ship canal; No. 5, the writer's third route, and preferred. All of these, except No. 1, though starting from different points at their western terminus, converge to a common point near the head waters of the Econfina River, and from that point eastward pass alternately along the routes of Gilmore's "ship" and "barge canal."

About 40 miles east of this point one of the most remarkable rivers, the Wacissa River, is found. Coming from an unknown source, bursting up through the riven rocks of the subsoil, it flows off a river which, a short distance below its several spring heads, is about 100 yards wide, about 4 feet deep, with a current of at least 4 miles per hour. To the east and west are the rivers Aucilla and St. Marks, each about 12 miles from the Wacissa. The head of the Wacissa is found by actual survey* to be over 32½ feet above tide water in the St. Marks at Newport (Gillmore puts it at 35 feet), the land gradually rising from the St. Marks until it culminates exactly at the head of this river, passing which, it as gradually falls to tide water in the Aucilla, thus revealing a ridge between these two valley streams, upon whose summit rises this subterranean river. Its waters are crystal clear, coming from some unfailing fount. There is no perceptible fluctuation in its flow, and while its neighbor streams are raging or failing under flooding rains or parching drought this strange river flows on in the even tenor of its way.

We have, then, here a feeder for the canal which would carry an unbroken sheet of water to St. James Island on the west, a distance of about 40 miles, and to the Suwanee River on the east, a distance of 70 miles, should it be desirable to carry the canal to that point, being at its eastern and western extremities over 30 feet at its surface above the plane of reference. Reaching the Suwanee, it could be carried up the valley of that river to the junction of the Suwanee and Little Withlacoochee rivers, rising to a plane some 60 feet above the plane of reference, or some 30 feet above the plane of the Wacissa by means of one or more locks—distance, between 20 and 30 miles; that is, distance between the eastern end of the Wacissa plane and that of Ellaville. At this point, by locks, it would rise to the summit levels in the great Okefinokee Swamp. This level would be carried through the Okefinokee to the vicinity of Camp Pinckney, on the upper waters of the St. Marys, a distance of 74 miles.

Total length of canal for barge route from its terminus on the Mississippi to its terminus on the St. Marys is estimated at from 520 to 550 miles, according as it may be taken from below or above New Orleans.

(See page 10 for description of alternate route.)

The rivers and streams along the route of the canal from St. Georges Sound to the Suwanee are, beginning at the west, the Ockloconee, St. Marks, Wacissa, Aucilla, Econfina, Finholloway, Warrior, Estenahatchee, and Suwanee. None of these are freshet rivers to any great extent. The Ockloconee and Aucilla, heading in southern Georgia, bring down moderate floods during the rainy season, but not sufficient to endanger or injure the canal, while all of them are easily convertible into feeders. The Suwanee is not included in this category, as the canal by this route would not cross that river on this plane.

From the Mississippi to the St. Marys, on the Atlantic, the whole distance, if leaving the river below New Orleans, is about 520 miles. Of this 212 miles is excavation, lying between the St. Marys River and St. Georges Sound, and of the remainder, viz, the removal of bars and short cuttings to connect the inland navigation along the gulf coast, 62 miles is excavation and dredging to connect the waters of Lake Wimico, St. Andrews Bay, Choctawatchee Bay, Santa Rosa Bay, and Mobile Bay, and the Mississippi.

* A series of levels, run in 1832 by the father of the writer, Col. John G. Gamble, from a point some miles below the head of the Wacissa, known as the "Calico Hills," gave 32.5 feet above the tide, and at the head of the river the exact elevation recorded by Gen. Gillmore, 35 feet.

Gen. Gillmore's estimate of the cost of the construction of a barge canal across the State is $25,231 per mile. Assuming this as our data, a barge canal from St. Georges Sound to the St. Marys would cost $5,349,972.

[Extract from Gen. A. Q. Gillmore's survey of Florida barge canal in 1878-'79, p. 996.]

SUMMIT LEVELS.

As this river (the Upper Suwanee) has an average descent or fall of about 1 foot per mile from Mixon's Ferry, near Billys Lake, where the Suwanee leaves the lake (where the elevation of the water level is 107·5 feet to the point of this crossing—the bed of the Upper Suwanee—where the water is 88·5 feet, the difference of level being 19 feet), * * * a dam here constructed would raise the water sufficiently to feed this level; * * * hence the Suwanee River is available for supplying a large quantity of feed water to the summit level.

I therefore assume that it has been abundantly proved that there is a sufficient body of water collectible along the line of the summit level to operate the largest ship canal that the commerce of the country is likely to demand for many years to come.

I have reason to believe that a much greater surplus of water than has been here shown will be found to exist. Should this canal, or any similar one, be excavated along or near this line infiltration alone will be found to be a very important factor in the water supply.

SAN PEDRO BAY (p. 1005).

This bay, situated south of the railroad and west of the Suwanee River, has features very similar to the Okefinokee Swamp. It was not explored, but from information received it appears to abound in open prairies covered with water and grass, the growth being pine, bay, and cypress. Its dimensions are about 10 miles east and west in breadth to 15 in length from north to south. Its water surface has an elevation of about 85 feet, while the rim on the south is 87 feet above tide water. Cultivated spots within 1 mile of the bay have an elevation of from 10 to 12 feet below the surface of its waters. Very little information can be obtained as to the interior of San Pedro, though there is reason to believe that its rim incloses a large amount of water available for feeding the lower levels of a ship canal.

No line was run around this bay, but the fact of Nortons Mill Creek issuing from it and flowing north across the railroad into the Withlacoochee River leads to the belief that the surrounding country on all sides is lower than the margin of this swamp; in other words, the country rises on all sides on approaching the water of San Pedro Bay, as it overflows on all sides. The Finholloway, Econfina, and Warrior rivers all flow from the bay south and east to the Suwanee.

BARGE CANAL LOCATION (p. 1005).

The following location is suggested as the best practicable line for a barge canal should the public interest require one of less magnitude than this ship canal:

Like the latter, the barge canal should have its eastern terminus at or near Camp Pinckney and run nearly due west—north 87° 30′ west—to Billys Lake. Here the direction changes to south 45° west, and

continues to near Ellaville, at the junction of the Withlacoochee and Suwanee, where the direction again changes to south 70° west. This course is then kept to the Aucilla River, where it is believed to be navigable, making the whole length 132 miles. The summit level will begin about 6 miles west of Camp Pinckney and terminate about 7 miles east of Ellaville, giving a long reach of about 74 miles.

This level will have an abundance of feed water from the swamp and Suwanee River. This is thought to be a more economical route from the fact of its traversing portions of the swamp in which there is the largest accumulation of water, and, further, because the water of the Suwanee River can be made to feed its summit level, and thereby assure a full supply at all seasons.

DIMENSIONS OF BARGE CANAL (p. 1006).

The following dimensions are recommended for a barge canal: We take this canal to be 100 feet wide at the bottom, 8 feet deep, and the slope of the sides to be 1 on 1½; elevation of bottom to be 94 feet above the plane of reference. This gives a cross section of 896 square feet and 4,730,880 cubic feet for 1 mile, and, reducing to yards, we have for the entire length of 132 miles 23,128,996 cubic yards of excavation. This, estimated at 12 cents per cubic yard, as the excavation is near the surface, we find the total cost to be $2,775,453.12, and, with 20 per cent added for contingencies, we have $3,330,543.74 as the cost of grading the canal. To this add the cost of 34 locks, 2 guard gates at the termini of the canal, 2 draw-bridges at the railroad crossings, and 5 intermediate gates to be used in repairs.

DESCRIPTION AND COST OF LOCKS (p. 1006).

The locks will be taken to have a length of 180 feet and width of 45 feet and depth of 8 feet, with a lift of 7 feet.

ESTIMATE FOR A LOCK.

Pile and timber foundations	$1,500	
1,774 yards of masonry, cost $15 per yard	26,610	
Lock gates and fastenings	10,500	
		$38,610
Add 10 per cent for contingencies		3,861
		42,471
Total cost of 34 locks		1,444,014
2 guard gates	$40,000	
5 repair gates	30,000	
2 drawbridges	20,000	
		90,000
For extra cutting or excavations along the summit level, including cost of crossing the Suwanee		750,000
For the improvement of St. Marys River to adapt it to navigation in connection with the barge canal		150,000
For improvement of Aucilla River and bar		750,000
34 locks		1,444,014
		3,184,014
Excavation		3,330,543
		6,514,557

This line involves passing the river at Ellaville—Suwanee—at the elevation of their surface, and must therefore rise to overcome the high ground beyond. This second summit or high level will extend nearly to the Econfina River, about 30 miles, and may be fed by an abundant supply of water from San Pedro Bay. St. Marks River may be a better terminus than the Aucilla.

ENGINEER'S CONCLUDING REMARKS (p. 1006).

In submitting the forgeing report of the important preliminary survey committed to my charge * * * enough has been learned to establish the important facts that the Okefinokee Swamp is well adapted by its physical features and impervious soil to form the bottom of a great reservoir for the collection and retention of storage water to supply a summit level, and it is also capable of supplying, by reason of its large area and that of its contiguous watersheds susceptible of drainage into it, an abundant supply of water to feed the summit level of a large ship canal connecting the Atlantic with Gulf of Mexico.

I have, it is true, introduced the Suwanee River as a factor in this supply, but there can be no reasonable doubt, in my opinion, that a thorough drainage of the water surface, whose waters would naturally flow into the Okefinokee Swamp, will develop the fact that the waters of the Suwanee River may be dispensed with altogether.

It may be found, upon a further series of levelings, that it would be better to bring the canal up by one lock after passing Ellaville, or to carry it farther north at that point, than to make the heavy cutting through the ridge lying between the Suwanee and Econfina rivers. This, however, is only a question of cost. I am always in favor of the shortest lines for public transportation, if they are practicable, as the difference in cost of construction is not to be considered in comparison with the perpetual cost of operating and repairs.

FILTRATION AND INFILTRATION (p. 989).

It may be safely stated that for all depth greater than 5 feet the gains by infiltration will exceed the loss by filtration.

GEN. GILLMORE'S ESTIMATE FOR A SHIP CANAL (p. 1003.)

For grading canal and collecting storage water	$54,010,598
Cost of the locks	3,716,469
Cost of improving St. Marys River	1,086,157
Cost of improving St. Marks Harbor	2,999,589
Total	61,812,814

HEALTH OF THE SWAMP REGION (p. 1004).

The inhabitants—the Mixons, the Lees, and the Chessers—all living within the limits of the swamp—the Okeefenokee—are as robust and healthy in appearance as persons from the highlands of Georgia. A physician is scarcely ever heard of in this section of country. I met many others on both the eastern and western borders of the swamp who live within its influence, and they all seem to possess remarkably good health and constitutions. They claim that they have no sickness resulting from miasmatic influences. There would be, I am sure, no difficulties on account of a malarious climate in constructing a canal in all its parts during any season of the year.

GILLMORE'S SURVEY (p. 974).

Nor is there anything known of the interior of Bay Swamp (the large swamp immediately south of Okeefenokee) except that by far the greatest portion of it is practically impenetrable to man as ordinarily equipped for making a survey. The assistant who ran the lines around it estimates that its surface is fully 10 feet higher than that of the southern portion of Okeefenokee, dipping in that direction—that is, to the northward—at the rate of from 6 to 12 inches per mile.

The area of the Okeefenokee Swamp is about 616 square miles; that of Bay Swamp not far from 196 square miles, and that of Gum Swamp, to the southeastward of Bay Swamp and close by, about 25 square miles.

AUCILLA RIVER.

Aucilla entrance is about 10 miles east of St. Marks light house, and is fronted by a labyrinth of sand and oyster banks which extend several miles off seaward and are bare at low water.

The channel winds among these banks, very crooked and narrow toward the mouth of the river, which empties into the Gulf of Mexico between two extensive marshes, entirely overflowed at high tide. Vessels drawing 5 feet of water may enter this river at high tide, but they can not swing to or around their anchorage, owing to the very narrow channel. The mouth of the river is about 800 meters* wide, and grows narrower as you ascend. Some rocks may be found in the channel way; and about 2½ or 3 miles from its entrance a ledge crosses from one side to the other. None but small boats can pass. (Coast Survey.)

ST. GEORGE SOUND.

St. George Island, 20 miles long and very narrow, lies with its center opposite to the mouth of the Apalachicola River, forming, with the mainland, a bay or sound from 3 to 8 miles wide. At its eastern extremity is a pass, known as "East Pass," which separates St. George from Dog Island, a small island some 6 miles long. Between Dog Island and the mainland is "Duer Channel," and directly north from the center of Dog Island is the mouth of Crooked River, one of the channels through which the Ocklockonnee River sends its waters to the gulf, emptying into St. George Sound, while the Ocklockonnee proper flows to the east, the two streams cutting off a section of the mainland some 15 or 20 miles long and some 3 or 4 miles wide, thus forming what is known as St. James Island.

On the left shore of this river (Crooked River), on the west end of St. James Island, is the town of Carabelle. At its southwestern extremity the sound is closed by St. Vincent Island, between which and St. George Island is the "West Pass." The harbor thus formed is landlocked and safe, capacious and deep, having, it is said, over 30 feet of water close inshore at St. James Island. The coast survey shows 16 fathoms within seven-eighths of a mile from the west end of St. James Island at mean low water.

ROUTE OF CANAL FROM ST. GEORGE SOUND WESTWARD.

Leaving St. George Sound, the route of the canal would be the channel of the Apalachicola River to a bayou 8 miles long, connecting

*2,600 feet.

Lake Wimico with the river; through Lake Wimico westward into Bayou Columbus, about 8 miles long.

These bayous are beautiful rivers from 100 to 200 yards in width, with depth of water varying from 10 to 20 feet. Lake Wimico is a beautiful sheet of water about 3 miles in diameter, with a depth of 10 to 15 feet, except at the entrance to Bayou Columbus, where there is a bar of soft mud, not exceeding 100 yards in width, having 3½ to 4 four feet over it, and 20 feet deep at each side. There would be no difficulty in deepening a channel thorough this bar. The practical and judicious contractor for the Lake Wimico and St. Joseph Railroad Company, in 1836–'37, said that if the company would furnish him with a steamboat to work his "drags" he would clear out a channel of sufficient depth in three days.

The tide rises and falls 2 feet in Lake Wimico. Going westward from the western end of Bayou Columbus, a cut of some 19 miles would connect with the eastern waters of St. Andrew Bay. A cut of 14 miles connects western St. Andrew Bay with Santa Rosa Bay; thence into Santa Rosa Sound and Pensacola Bay. A cut of some 4 miles connects with Perdido Bay. A cut of 10 miles connects Perdido with Mobile Bay and Mississippi Sound. Thence either by Lake Borgne and Pontchartrain to the Mississippi or across Mississippi Sound to a point below the city of New Orleans.

THE PROPOSED TERMINI.

St. George Sound on the west, and a point at tidewater on the St. Marys. I have already spoken of the fine harbor and deep water in the sound. Several other points of great importance present themselves.

In these days of progress in naval warfare, one of the first desiderati is the safety of seacoast cities from the tremendous projectile power of modern artillery. The seaward islands and narrow passes of the sound and the comparative shallow waters of the immediate outlying sea render it an easy matter to fortify against the heavy modern warship, with its longr-eaching artillery.

Secondly, the health of the location is admirable. Then, the Apalachicola Rivera nd its tributaries, reaching far into a country full of resources, empties itself into the sound some 20 miles to the west. A cut of 12 miles through the western end of St. James Island would carry the sea level to the Ocklockonnee River, on the north side of the island; here locks would rise to the level of the Wacissa River or first to the Wakulla Plane; here, then, by works properly constructed and connected with the canal, a water power of 30 feet fall, emptying into the Ocklockonnee River at some point nearer its mouth and flowing off into the sea some 35 miles east of the port, would furnish almost unlimited manufacturing power. Again, the Ocklockonnee River would furnish an ample supply of good water for the domestic uses of a city.

The terminus on the Saint Marys would also be secure from maritime warfare, and the same water power could be availed of there.

BUILDING MATERIAL EN ROUTE.

From Saint Georges Sound to the Okefinokee limestone abounds and is easily accessible on all the water courses and at such points especially where it would be most required. At some points also inexhaustible supplies of shell, easily accessible to transportation by water

and convertible at a minimum expense into good lime, can be procured. The writer has now in his possession a brick made by him, in the construction of his sugar house in south Florida, forty-five years since, and it presents a practical illustration of the excellence and economy of the material, the supply of which all along this section is practically inexhaustible.

It is made entirely of sand and lime, dead oyster shells being burned and roughly slaked are ground up, together with portions of imperfectly burned shells, mixed with a little more than equal measure of clean sand, in the common brick clay mills of the country, water being added as the mill is gradually filled.

As it comes from the mill it is thrown by a spade into the molds, which may be of any size or shape, and is immediately dumped upon the yard, where in a few hours it hardens sufficiently to resist the action of falling rain, and, requiring no further handling, can lie on the yard until carried to be built in the wall. As it is not passed through kilns there is no waste, and every brick molded will go into the building. This material should enter largely into the construction of the masonry needed in the locks, bridges, and dams of the canal. The brick can be made upon the spot where needed, saving labor and transportation.

Timber of the best quality is abundant. Labor of the cheapest character, and most efficient and reliable, can be obtained along the whole route, and adapted to the climate.

NAVIGATION OF SANTA ROSA SOUND.

From 3¾ fathoms in Choctawhatchee Bay a cut of half a mile carries us into Santa Rosa Narrows into 22 fathoms soundings; there being about 6 feet of water on the bulkhead at low water three-quarters of a mile to the west, a cut of 100 yards through 6 feet of water into 9 fathoms, half a mile westward a cut of 100 yards in 5½ feet of water to 11 fathoms; thence 4½ miles through the sound, a cut of 100 yards through 5 feet water into 11 fathoms; thence 9 miles to a cut of 300 yards in 6 feet water into 10 fathoms; thence along the sound to Pensacola Bay, with soundings varying from 9½ to 30 fathoms. (Coast Survey.)

Scow work of 1,480 yards in water 5 to 6 feet deep at low water completes channel from Choctawhatchee Bay through the narrows and sound of Santa Rosa into Pensacola Bay.

CAPABILITY OF THE DREDGES.

On the Panama Canal the American dredge *Nathan Appleton* removes and deposits on the banks 3,000 meters per day* of hard clay and marl, mixed in some places with coral rock. (Scientific American.)

This is equivalent to 3,600 cubic yards per diem. Machine for making concrete. (*See* Scientific American, May 1, 1886.)

DREDGING ON THE KISSIMEE RIVER IN FLORIDA.

Dredge No. 3, on the Kissimee, cut 1,600 yards per diem in August.

By 1,600 cubic yards per diem, at 15 cents	$240
Say 300 days' labor	72,000
Value of work	72,000
Deduct pay for the machine	8,600
Net profit per annum, to which add value of machine at end of year	63,400

* This was written when work was progressing at Panama.

Interest at 8 per cent	$288
Labor per annum	1,500
Fuel	1,500
Repairs	1,000
Contingent	712
	5,000
Cost of dredge	3,600
	8,600

And making in one year a clear profit of $59,800, or rather at that rate.

GILLMORE'S ESTIMATE OF EXCAVATION.

He estimates the average excavation per mile in his proposed barge canal at 175,218 cubic yards. The *Nathan Appleton* would remove this quantity in 48 days at the above rate.

COST OF DREDGE WORK WHICH COULD BE DONE BETWEEN THE AUCILLA AND OCKLOCONEE RIVERS, A DISTANCE OF 50 MILES.

An excavation made north and immediately adjoining the source of the Wacissa River to the depth of the proposed canal, and the water of that river admitted, would float a dredge constructed on the spot. This would be carried 40 miles west to the Ockloconee River. This completed, the dredges returning would carry to the Aucilla on the east, some 8 or 10 miles, the extension of the excavation in that direction.

A dam, thrown across the Ockloconee at the proper point, would raise the water in that river to supply a feeder at the west end of the 40-mile section, to float dredges, as in the case of the Wacissa, provided that the lower plane of the Wakulla is dispensed with. Three dredges, with the capacity each of discharging 2,500 cubic yards per diem and working abreast from each end of this section, making a fleet of six dredges, would in two years finish the excavation of this section, removing over 7,000,000 cubic yards, which at 12 cents per cubic yard (Gen. Gillmore's estimate), would be worth $840,000, making the work of the dredges over $700,000 cheaper than by the ordinary mode with shovel and barrow, as will appear by the following table:

Six dredges, $6,000 each	$36,000
Interest on $36,000 for 2 years at 8 per cent	5,760
Cost of labor for 2 years, say	24,000
Fuel for 2 years, say	24,000
Repairs for 2 years, say	24,000
Contingencies	9,240
Total	87,000
By work 2 years	840,000
By one-fourth value dredges	9,000
	849,000
Less expense	87,000
Net profit	762,000

The writer thinks that probably 50 per cent of above costs would suffice.

Cost of excavating section of 40 miles between the Wacissa and Ockloconee rivers, say 7,000,000 cubic yards, at 12 cents per yard, with shovel and barrow	840,000
Add for implements and labor	5,000
Add feeding 1,000 men two years	75,000
	920,000
Cost of same excavations by dredges	87,000
Difference in favor of *dredges*	833,000

ALTERNATE AND MORE DIRECT ROUTE FOR CANAL.*

Starting from St. Georges Sound, following up the channel of Crooked River by dredging a distance of about 15 miles to its point of departure from the Ocklocoonee River; thence in a direct line to the western terminus of Gen. Gillmore's "ship canal" at St. Marks, a distance of 18 miles; thence along said ship-canal route to its crossing above the junction of the Little Withlacoochee and Suwance rivers, a distance of 70 miles; thence 20 miles along said route to a point at which the barge-canal route diverges from it, running in a northeasterly direction along its surveyed route through the Okefinokee Swamp to Camp Pinckney, at the head of ship navigation on the St. Marys River, a distance of about 60 miles, or a total between termini of 183 miles; and by Gen. Gillmore's estimate for cost per mile, the excavation of this section would be, at his estimate of $25,231, after adding 20 per cent for contingencies per mile		† $4,617,273
All other expenditures, to wit, 34 locks, 2 guard gates, 5 repair gates, 2 drawbridges, extra cutting on summit levels, cost of crossing Suwanee, improvement of St. Marys River, for improvement of Aucilla River and bar, amount in the aggregate to	$3,184,014	
Deduct the items for the Aucilla, viz, cost, as per Gillmore, of opening the Aucilla to deep water avoided by the extension of route to St. Georges Sound	750,000	
		2,434,014
		7,051,287

Thus we see that Gillmore's barge canal, with its terminus on the Aucilla, would cost $6,514,557, and the canal carried on to St. Georges Sound, 51 miles longer, would cost $7,051,287, an excess of $536,730, with no expenditure at the harbor necessary, and the harbor one of the best on the gulf coast in every respect, and rendering unnecessary any open sea route, with its exposures to weather and war, to the barges, from the Mississippi to the St. Marys.

Here I insert a notice of incorporation, which is of interest in this connection:

To all whom it may concern:

Notice is hereby given that we, the undersigned, have associated ourselves together under and by virtue of section 1, chapter 1987, laws of Florida, approved February 19, 1874—McClellan's Digest, section 1, page 274—and the amendments thereto, under the name of the East Bay and Lake Chipola Canal, Railway, and Land Company. The purpose for which this corporation is formed being to construct and operate a canal from the head waters of East St. Andrews Bay to the waters of Lake Chipola and the Apalachicola River; also, to construct, operate, and maintain a railroad from East Bay to the Apalachicola River. Said canal and railroad shall pass through the counties of Calhoun and Washington in this State. The principal office of said company shall be St. Andrews, Washington County, Fla. The capital stock of the company to be $100,000, to be divided into 1,000 shares of $100 each, the company to have the privilege to increase said capital stock to $500,000.

G. B. THOMPSON.
JOHN R. DOVE.
C. J. DEMOREST.
G. W. JENKS.
JOHN D. MARTIN.
WM. P. PARKER.
JOSEPH DEAN.

ST. ANDREWS, *June 10, 1888.*

* See page 14.
† *On the supposition* that the excavation was done with barrow and shovel.

THE BARGES.

As the roughest waters which these vessels will have to encounter in transit would be those of the Mississippi, they can be built very flat, long, and wide; and as there will be no buffeting with seas, their frames may be comparatively light in proportion to their tonnage, and they might have a displacement of at least 3,000 tons. These barges could be constructed to move by their own machinery, or carried in numbers in the tow of a strong "tug," and in this connection, turning to my notes, I find the following extract from an article published by me some years since:

The immense practical value of this great commercial avenue—the Mississippi River—to the producers of the great Mississippi Valley can be best exemplified by citing facts illustrative of the vastly greater economy of water transportation in moving great masses of material, whether of agricultural products, or of the mine, or of the forest, over the transportation of these products by land carriage. Thus: "On the 6th day of May the towboat *J. B. Williams* started for New Orleans from Louisville with a tow consisting of 26 boats and 8 barges of coal and 1 barge of hay of 400 tons, the coal measuring 694,000 bushels, equal to 26,852 tons. To conceive the magnitude of this cargo, let it be supposed that it is loaded in 2,566 cars that would be required to transport it by rail; and, with the 102 locomotives and tenders that would be necessary to haul them, the train would cover a tract nearly 18 miles long.

The number of men employed on the tow does not exceed 25, while more than 600 would be employed on the trains. The *Williams* carried this tow the distance of 1,350 miles and delivered it at New Orleans a week after departure. It would have been impossible for one of the railroads to have delivered the same cargo within two weeks. The floating property composing the tow was worth at Louisville $125,000. The value of rolling stock alone which would be necessary to carry the cargo by rail would be several millions of dollars.

The coal run of the Ohio, in 1882, was 4,185,185 bushels and that of 1883 will exceed this.

To transport this 1,350 miles by rail would require, it is calculated, 32,000 cars and 600 engines, with a force of 3,900 men, while to deliver the same by the river would require 6 towboats, 156 boats, 48 barges, and 150 men; the capital invested in the rolling stock by rail alone being $8,000,000, while that by the river would be $750,000, to say nothing of the wear and tear of 1,350 miles of rail on the one hand and the costless transit of the river on the other.

The above statistics, in substance, are taken from the New York Herald of May 16, and are doubtless correct.

Now, by means of the canal, the *J. B. Williams* could bring her freight in three days more to an Atlantic port, or in as many more days could reach as many more of the seaports of the south Atlantic—Savannah, Charleston, Wilmington—and the inland navigation along the Atlantic coast could be easily extended to the waters of the Chesapeake. Intersecting this line of navigation, rivers and railroads debouching at gulf and Atlantic ports, would empty these floating argosies and carry their freights into an interior capable of absorbing them and replacing them with freights for their homeward voyage. The barges and boats in this tow averaged over 800 tons burthen.

With reference to the economy of the barge feature of this enterprise, as the business of the canal increases it might be found profitable to increase its depth, which would be effected by the dredge, and in view of such a contingency the engineer would doubtless concur in the suggestion of the writer, viz, so to construct the locks as to make their adjustment to the lower plane thus made as inexpensive as possible. The largest practical tonnage of the barge consistent with the navigation of the waters of the Mississippi would be the most economical, and the ultimate depth of the canal should be dependent upon this factor.

As the canal would be in a great measure a national benefit, every State bordering on the Mississippi and its tributaries, including the Missouri and the Ohio, would be interested in so grand a channel, which would be the means of bringing all the products of their industry nearer to the world's markets, and with the greatest economy. So also with the gulf States and the Southern and Middle Atlantic States.

It would be a national benefit of the first order, facilitating the speedy and economical transportation of troops and munitions of war from the Atlantic to the gulf; and it should not be doubted that the Government, in this aspect of the case, would liberally aid in its construction, say by guaranteeing, on certain conditions, the payment of interest on the bonds issued by a company undertaking the great work, the Government thereby becoming a preferred patron, entitled to reduced freights at all times, and during hostilities to have privilege of transportation of troops or munitions of war upon its own terms. There are probably more than two-thirds of the House of Representatives at Washington whose States are directly interested in the success of this enterprise.

Again, as the property of this canal company will be by our constitution exempt from taxation, this should add largely to its value and would be an important factor in inspiring confidence in the holders of its bonds.

And it is probable that the State would bestow largely of the lands then in her possession, or which should revert to her possession in the future.

Preeminently would it be the interest of the northern gulf cities to have this great highway passing by their doors, for it would bring to them the commerce of the interior, which is now sapped and diverted by the railways which bisect their waterways and carry their spoils to the Atlantic ports. Nor would the enormous traffic of the great States lying on the far-reaching watersheds of the great valley be the only rich and paying freights. The local freights would be far from insignificant. The canal would pass through great tracts of rich phosphate mines and virgin forests and a country rich in agricultural and pastoral wealth.

The cotton crop of the United States has now reached to 9,000,000 bales. It is computed that 95 per cent of the cotton raised in the gulf States is shipped to foreign countries, directly or indirectly by routes which would be shortened by a Florida ship canal. Of this at least 5,000,000 bales would require transportation from gulf ports and would pass over this route.

The production of wheat in 1877 exceeded that of 1849 by over 350 per cent. The great increase of the area of cultivation of this cereal with each succeeding year would warrant an estimate of increase of 100 per cent over 1877 in 1890, or about 750,000,000 bushels; and the corn crop of 1890 may be placed at 2,000,000,000 bushels as against 1,342,000,000 in 1877. The coal of Ohio alone, in 1882, 4,185,000 bushels, would probably before 1890 be capable of development to 8,000,000, were a cheap outlet such as would be furnished by the canal afforded. The consumption of sugar in the United States is placed by departmental authority at 1,275,283 tons in 1884 as against 1,105,169 tons in 1883. A large portion of this would go through the canal. Add to these the other cereals and grains, hay, tobacco, hemp, dairy products, pork, bacon, lard, stone, staves, hoop poles, iron, lead, copper, manufactures in these metals, manufactures in wood, wagons, plows, etc.

The great cattle trade of the West and Southwest would seek the Atlantic by this route. Large and roomy boats built for the purpose, with protection from sun and storm, smoothness of motion, supplies of water and food, would insure the arrival of the cattle in good order at Atlantic ports. The same would be true of the horse and mule trade.

Again, it would furnish a preferred route for immigrant travel, families being enabled to bring at a minimum cost their entire household and farm stuff from their old to their new homes. Doubtless these advantages and the comparative comfort of the transit would largely change the present immigration route from Europe to this country, for doubtless in the near future this tide, for want of more northern territory to invade, will turn to the southern latitudes of the Union and the northern borders of Mexico.

With this data we might venture to construct a schedule of tolls as an approximate at least, and probably very nearly correct, or sufficiently so to show a margin which no reasonable reduction would bring below the plane of a rich dividend on capital.

APPROXIMATE TOLLS ON CANAL.

Five million bales of cotton, at 25 cents per bale	$1,249,000
Three million tons of coal	150,000
Imports and exports of sugar, say one-half the consumption of the United States	632,000
Wheat, 500,000,000 bushels; corn, 500,000,000 bushels, 1 cent per bushel	10,000,000
Grains and farm products generally	1,500,000
Iron, lead, copper, brick, and stone	750,000
Manufactures in metal and wood, etc	750,000
Cattle, horses, mules, etc	3,000,000
Immigration and other travel	1,500,000
Say tolls on imports corresponding to these exports	19,522,000
Say three-fourths of the amount from exports	14,641,500
	34,163,500
Gilmore estimates the cost of operating and repairing a canal costing over sixty millions at $500,000 per annum; this barge canal in the proportion of cost would not require one-sixth of this amount	500,000
	33,663,500

Now, though these figures are astoundingly large, if examined closely, they will be found to be based on reasonable data, and falling probably far short of the total exports and imports of the vast country which they represent.

Now, supposing that one-twentieth of this sum be realized during the early years of the completed canal, and we have a revenue of $1,668,675, representing a capital of $20,858,400 at 8 per cent	$1,668,675
Less 8 per cent on expenditure of $7,051,287—the cost of the canal—or $564,102	564,102
	1,104,573

The great development of the mining resources of Alabama, Mississippi, and Southern Tennessee would supply large freights in the shape of iron, coal, marble, and the manufactured results of these products, going both east and west by this barge traffic.

WORK TO BE DONE BY DREDGING.

Starting from Mississippi Sound on the west, a cut of 10 miles, 80 feet at top and 60 feet at bottom and 13 feet deep.

	Cub. yds.
Ten miles, giving 9 feet water in channel into Perdido Bay	1,779,500
Perdido to Pensacola Bay, 4 miles, cutting as above	711,820
Pensacola to St. Andrew's Bay, 14 miles, cutting as above	2,504,370
St. Andrew's to Lake Wimico, 19 miles, cutting as above	3,381,145
Bayou Columbus, 100 yards soft mud along Pensacola and Santa Rosa, as per Coast Survey, several bulkheads with 6 feet water	28,900
	8,395,285

The above represents the dredging between the Mississippi Sound and the mouth of Crooked River, on St. George's Sound.

In view of the economy of excavation by dredges, a modification of the route on its extension west of the Wacissa River presents itself:

West of the Wacissa about 20 miles there rises another subterranean river of the same class—the Wakulla—an immense spring several acres in area, of a depth, it is said, of over 100 feet; a river born at this one source, breaking through the limestone strata, flows to the south and east, forming a junction with the St. Marks at the site of the old Spanish fort of that name.

Here we have another feeder of the lower level some 25 feet above the plane of reference. Dredges could be constructed and floated in this great fountain, and working eastward and westward in connection with dredges floated on the Wacissa, carrying this level westward to about the meridian of the head of the Crooked River and eastward, crossing the St. Marks, Wacissa, Aucilla, and Econfina rivers, a stretch of 63 miles, constituting the first plane. The western end of the Wakulla plane would penetrate a section of some 200 square miles, similar in many respects to San Pedro Bay, furnishing a very important feed supply to a canal upon this plane, and into which, by a dam, the Ockloconee River could be diverted.

The third plane, being the summit level, 74 miles long, could be all dredge work.

Thus the first and third planes, including 15 miles in the channel of Crooked River, would give 137 miles of a total of 183 miles as dredge work, leaving 46 miles to be otherwise excavated.

Then we see that if six dredges—as on page 14—cut out 40 miles at an expense of $87,000, including interest on cost of dredges, then the same number of dredges would cut out the whole 137 miles at the expense of $297,975; but let us suppose the expense to be double this amount, and we have for excavation of 137 miles the cost at $595,950.

While the same labor, by wheel and shovel would, as shown by page 15, cost $3,151,000, a difference of $2,555,000 in favor of the dredges.

PROBABLY THE ROUTE TO BE PREFERRED.

By this route, the first plane above tide water would be 25 feet higher and would be fed by the Wakulla River. This plane would be carried to the Wacissa by a second lock and raised to the plane of that river to a height of 32·5 to 35 feet above the tide, and would be fed by the Wacissa and would extend to the Suwannee River.

WATER POWER FOR MANUFACTURING.

Upon this lower level, with unlimited supply of water, there are presented natural locations for the establishment of manufacturing

plants, to wit, the Ockloconee west of the terminus, and the crossing of the St. Marks, the Wacissa, and the Aucilla.

The great value and advantages of these situations is obvious, when we consider that this great artery of commerce passes immediately at their door, bringing to them every conceivable raw material, and carrying from them their manufactured products to the Atlantic on the one side and to the headwaters of the Mississippi on the other, at a minimum cost of transportation.

THE GREAT CANALS OF THE WORLD.

The Imperial Canal of China is over 1,000 miles long. In the year 1861 was completed the greatest undertaking of the kind on the European continent—the Canal of Languedoc, or the Canal du Midi—to connect the Atlantic with the Mediterranean. Its length is 148 miles; it has more than 100 locks and about 50 aqueducts, and its highest part is no less than 600 feet above the sea; it is navigable for vessels of 600 tons. The largest ship canal in Europe is the great North Holland Canal, completed in 1825—125 feet wide at the water surface, 31 feet wide at the bottom, and has a depth of 20 feet; it extends from Amsterdam to the Helder, 51 miles.

The Caledonian Canal in Scotland has a total length of 60 miles, including three lakes.

The Suez Canal is 88 miles long, of which 66 are actual canal.

The Erie Canal is 350½ miles long.

The Ohio Canal, Cleveland to Portsmouth, 332 miles.

The Miami and Erie, Cincinnati to Toledo, 291 miles.

The Wabash and Erie, Evansville to the Ohio line, 374 miles.

HEAVY GRAIN BUSINESS.

NEW ORLEANS GETTING MORE WHEAT THAN IT CAN TAKE CARE OF.

NEW ORLEANS, LA., *August 4, 1891.*

The great grain business which New Orleans is doing this year is beginning to point the moral of its own story. The Illinois Central, the Mississippi Valley, and the Louisville and Nashville railroads are bringing in large cargoes of wheat and other grain for export. The freight rates favor New Orleans, and it has been demonstrated that this city can be made the grain port of the country.

The city, however, is not quite ready for the mass of grain business. There are 150 cars of wheat standing in the Illinois Central yards waiting for elevator room. There is, in fact, great need for elevator facilities, and the need has brought about considerable discussion in private and railroad circles as to the supplying of the demand. Several elevator building projects are now on foot. The railroads have plans well under way. The Louisville and Nashville, among others, contemplates building an elevator on a portion of its wharf, placing it in the very heart of the commercial portion of the city. The location and the elevator will be utilized for a double purpose—the loading of ships with grain for export, and the distribution of grain to the local and adjacent markets. To meet the latter demand the idea is to have a double elevator, the home market to be supplied from a repository capable of holding 500,000 bushels.

There is no fear in the minds of the railroad people of the grain busi-

ness interfering with the cotton trade. The Southern Pacific road is contemplating with satisfaction the recent trip of one of its banana trains.

SUMMIT LEVEL NOTES.

[Gillmore's Report.]

The principal outlet of the Okefinokee Swamp is where the Suwanee River leaves the swamp, and lowest marginal point at Mixons Ferry, 107·5 feet above mean low water at the town of St. Marys, being 17·5 feet below water surface of northern extremity of swamp, 22½ miles in a straight line north of Mixons Ferry, and 13 feet lower than the opposite point of swamp on the eastern border, and nearly as much lower than the southeasterly corner of the swamp at the outlet of the St. Marys, near Ellicots Mound. The area of the swamp is about 616 square miles, that of Bay Swamp not far from 196 square miles, and that of Gum Swamp about 25 square miles, or a total of about 835 to 840 square miles. The surface of Bay Swamp is estimated as being fully 10 feet higher than the southern portion of Okefinokee to the northward, toward which it dips at the rate of from 6 to 12 inches per mile.

The three great swamps, together with their watersheds, are computed at 1,200 square miles.

The annual rainfall is known to exceed 5,575,680,740 cubic yards of water. Allow two-thirds to be lost by evaporation and filtration, and we have 1,858,560,247 cubic yards for the annual working of the canal, collectbile. To this add one-half of the volume of water that can be supplied by the Suwanee River, by means of a dam at the crossing of that stream, and we have from the river 1,263,192,000 cubic yards, and a total supply per annum from swamp and river of 3,121,752,247 cubic yards to operate the canal, and which we shall see is amply sufficient. This calculation is made for a ship canal costing over $50,000,000.

We see, therefore, how ample would be the supply for a barge canal of from 15 to 20 feet depth, should so large a one be required. I therefore assume that it has been abundantly proven that there is a sufficient volume of water collectible along the line of the summit level to operate the largest ship canal that the commerce of the country is likely to demand in many years to come. I have reason to believe that a much greater surplus of water than has been here shown will be found to exist. Should this canal, or any similar one, be excavated along or near this line, infiltration alone will be found to be a very important factor in the water supply.

SOUNDINGS ALONG THE WESTERN COAST OF FLORIDA PENINSULA

[Gillmore's Report.]

Along the western coast the depth of water increases very slowly as we move out from the shore, so that a depth of 26 feet—the depth required for a ship canal—is not found nearer than about 7½ miles from land.

All streams can be taken into the canal, as they deposit no silt.

DRAINING THE SWAMP FOR COLLECTING WATER.

[Gillmore's Report.]

I have laid down on the map several lines in blue ink, showing the location proposed for the largest class of lateral draining canals, for the purpose of collecting the water into the storage reservoirs along

ɜ line of the canal for its supply. These are the main arteries which, th a suitable number of side drains, will make a complete system of ıinage for the swamps—Okefinokee and the two south of it.

THE GRADE OF THE DRAINING CANALS.

[Gillmore's Report.]

The water surface in the Okefinokee Swamp varies in its rate of ɔ or depression from 5 to 10 inches to the mile.

The dip of Gum and Bay swamps to the Okefinokee is from 6 to inches to the mile. The grades to be given to the drains must ɜrefore be about the same toward the reservoir that the depression ll admit.

It will be observed that the fall of the several draining canals is very ht, similar in this particular to the natural water courses of the ıntry. They will bear less sediment into the reservoirs as a conseence, and the abrasion of the banks will be less.

E SATILLA RIVER AS THE OUTLET OF THE SHIP CANAL PROPOSED.

[Gillmore's Report, p. 1003.]

The ship channel of the Satilla River, as given on Coast Survey chart ɔ. 57, from St. Andrews Sound to the bulkhead on Floyds Shoals, 5 les above the sound, shows from 12 to 26 feet, while on the shoals ly 8 feet. From the shoals to a distance of 35 miles above, to Baileys lls, there are four shoals of 12 feet each; the balance of the channel ll average 19 feet. From Baileys Mill, 5 miles above, there are one more shoals of 8 feet. Here, 45 miles from the sound, may properly called the head of ocean navigation, where vessels, with favorable ɛs, can load to 14 feet. Above this point the river begins to shoal ıter. Gormans Bluff is 10 miles above, 55 miles from the sound.

SAINT MARYS RIVER AS THE OUTLET OF THE CANAL.

[Gillmore's Report.]

The ship channel of the Saint Marys River, as given on the same art, from Cumberland Sound to 3½ miles above the town of Saint ırys, and 8½ miles from the sound, shows two soundings of 16 feet ch, and four soundings of 42 feet, making the average depth of the annel 29 feet.

At Temples, 42 miles from the sound, there is a shoal of 12 feet; at ngs Ferry, 45 miles from the sound, is a shoal of 12 feet; at Orange uff, 48 miles from the sound, is a shoal of 12 feet; at Colerain, 54 les from the sound, is a shoal of 11 feet. To this point, with favora- e tides, vessels can go drawing 18 feet of water. The average depth the channel, from 3½ miles from Saint Marys is 24 feet.

From Colerain to Camp Pinckney, 8 miles, there are two shoals of 8 d 10 feet, and the average depth of the river is 21 feet. Camp Pinck- y, 60 miles from Cumberland Sound, is called the head of ocean nav- ation, and vessels with favorable tides can carry 14 feet to this point. All the depths given for both rivers are given as soundings at mean w water. The distance to be improved on the Saint Marys River for ship canal for 24 feet depth at low water would not exceed 6 miles. ı the Satilla it would probably be three or four times greater. The

greater depth of the St. Marys as compared with the Satilla is due apparently to its smaller width.

At a point 27 miles from Cumberland Sound they—the Satilla and the Saint Marys—are only 4½ miles apart, and it may be deemed best to make a canal connection across this neck and use the Satilla.

A letter was received from Mr. G. H. Rhea, president of the Mississippi Valley Transportation Company, which is doing an extensive business in transporting grain, flour and western products generally from St. Louis to New Orleans by means of barges and towboats. * * * It is further stated that for many years the average freight charges have been 35 per cent more from New Orleans to foreign ports than from Atlantic ports, and on grain, for part of the time, 50 per cent more.

PROBABLE PROFIT OF A SHIP CANAL.

[Gillmore's Report, p. 983.]

Inasmuch as the Florida Canal will cost about fifty millions for construction and $500,000 per annum for maintenance and administration, it is evident that, if only as much tonnage as passed through the Florida Straits during the last fiscal year (about 2,600,000 tons), should pass through the canal yearly, at a charge of 28 cents per ton toll, the net profit will amount to something less than one-half of 1 per cent on the original cost of the work.

FROM A NATIONAL POINT OF VIEW.

[Gillmore's Report, 983.]

A Florida ship canal is an object of importance as part of a comprehensive scheme for improving and cheapening our means of water transportation from the heart of our grain and cotton growing regions to foreign ports, and there would seem to be as little need of attempting to fix its rentable or money-earning value as in undertaking to apply the same rule to the works of river and harbor improvement prosecuted by the United States Government.

SURVEY FOR A SHIP CANAL FROM ST. MARYS RIVER, FLORIDA, TO THE GULF OF MEXICO.

[In charge of Q. A. Gillmore, lieutenant-colonel of engineers, brevet major-general, U. S. Army; being Appendix J 12 of the Annual Report of the Chief of Engineers for 1880.]

[Extract from the Annual Report of the Chief of Engineers to the Secretary of War.]

OFFICE OF THE CHIEF OF ENGINEERS,
U. S. ARMY,
Washington, D. C., October 16, 1880.

* * * * * * *

To comply with provisions of the river and harbor act of June 18, 1878, Lieut. Col. Gillmore was charged with and has completed an examination of the peninsula of Florida, with a view to the construc-

tion of a ship canal from St. Marys River to the Gulf of Mexico, the results of which were transmitted to Congress in a report which was printed as Senate Ex. Doc. No. 154, Forty-sixth Congress, second session. (*See also* Appendix J 12.)

* * * * * * *

EXAMINATION OF THE PENINSULA OF FLORIDA, WITH A VIEW TO THE CONSTRUCTION OF A SHIP CANAL FROM ST. MARYS RIVER TO THE GULF OF MEXICO.

U. S. ENGINEER OFFICE,
New York, April 6, 1880.

GENERAL: I have the honor to submit the following report on the subject of a ship canal across the State of Florida:

Congress, by act approved June 18, 1878, directed an examination to be made of the peninsula of Florida, with a view to the construction of a ship canal from the St. Marys River to the Gulf of Mexico.

The duty of making this examination was assigned to me by the Chief of Engineers, under the date of July 8, 1878, and an allotment of $7,500 was made for this object.

It was understood that with this sum such an examination could be made as would determine the feasibility of the project of a peninsula ship canal and furnish data for an approximate estimate of its cost.

The great length of the line, the necessity for exploring the country to a considerable distance on either side of it, the difficulties of access in many cases to important localities, and the comparatively small sum allotted for the work, necessarily caused the survey to be almost entirely preliminary in character.

Mr. Charles Mahon, originally in charge of the surveying party, received his principal instructions on the 23d day of October, 1878. On January 13, 1879, Mr. S. L. Fremont, the assistant upon the works of river and harbor improvement at Savannah, Ga., was instructed to relieve Mr. Mahon of his duty, and henceforth had charge of the survey to the time of its completion, Mr. Mahon being employed chiefly in plotting the results of the work.

The field work was commenced during the first week of November, 1878, and carried on until the following April, when it was suspended, for the reason chiefly that Mr. Fremont's entire attention was required for his other duties on the Savannah River.

The field work was resumed late in July and brought to a close early in September, 1879.

That part of the Florida Railroad between Fernandina and Baldwin, a length of 47 miles, and a portion of the Jacksonville, Pensacola and Mobile Railroad, from Baldwin to Ellaville, on the Suwanee, a length of 75 miles, were, from their convenient location, used as a base of operations. They were carefully leveled over, the Coast Survey mean low-water mark at Fernandina serving as datum. The highest elevation of this line above tide level is 203 feet, at and near Lake City, 40 miles west of Baldwin. At Ellaville, the western terminus of the base line, the elevation is but 69·2 feet.

The field work based on these railroad lines comprised the following operations, viz:

A transit and level line was run from near Anderson, about 16½ miles west of Baldwin, towards the southeast end of Okefinokee Swamp; thence with a compass and level line along and near to the easterly and northeasterly margin of the swamp to its northern extremity; and thence

along its northwesterly margin to Mixons Ferry, where the Suwanee leaves the swamp, forming its principal outlet.

From Mixons Ferry a similar line was run in a more or less southerly or southwesterly direction, on the relatively high ground between the Suwanee River on the west and the Okefinokee and Bay swamps on the east, terminating at Lake City.

From a point on this line some miles north of Lake City a line of levels was run in a more or less northeasterly direction towards the site of old Fort Moniac, on the north prong of St. Marys River, a short distance below Ellicotts Mound; and from that point another line was run in a westerly direction to the Suwanee, crossing the narrow ridge of land separating the southern border of Okefinokee Swamp from the northern border of Bay Swamp.

These two large swamps were completely surrounded by the lines mentioned, and the elevation of a large number of points on their margins determined. Offsets were taken into Okefinokee Swamp at several places.

As a general result of the levels taken it was found that the greatest depression of the marginal portion of Okefinokee Swamp is at its Suwanee outlet at Mixons Ferry, where the water surface is 107·5 feet above low-tide level at the town of St. Marys and 17·5 feet below the water surface of the northern extremity of the swamp, 22½ miles north of Mixons Ferry in a straight line. It is also 13 feet lower than the point of the swamp opposite to it on the eastern border, and nearly as much lower than the southeasterly corner of the swamp at the St. Marys outlet, near Ellicotts Mound. The offset lines of levels taken show that the eastern margin of the swamp gradually rises from the southeasterly point and reaches its greatest altitude at the northern extremity, from which point, following the northwestern and western margin, it descends to its greatest depression at Mixons Ferry.

The interior of Okefinokee Swamp, with the exception of the islands, is probably somewhat lower than its marginal portions. The prairies were found covered with a rather uniform depth of water of from 1½ to 2 feet. The swamp proper, which constitutes the largest portion of Okefinokee Swamp, consists of silt, water-soaked, easily penetrated muck, extensively covered with bay, loblolly, gum, cypress, and pine, with an undergrowth so dense as to be almost impenetrable to man for many square miles. These topographical difficulties made it impossible, with the means at hand, to attempt an instrumental survey of the interior of the swamp.

Nor is there anything known of the interior of Bay Swamp, the large swamp immediately south of the Okefinokee, except that by far the greater portion of it is practically impenetrable to man, as ordinarily equipped for making a survey. The assistant who ran the lines around it estimated that its surface is fully 10 feet higher than that of the southern portion of Okefinokee Swamp, dipping in that direction, that is, to the northward, at the rate of from 6 to 12 inches per mile.

The area of Okefinokee Swamp is about 616 square miles; that of Bay Swamp not far from 196 square miles, and that of Gum Swamp, to the southeastward of Bay Swamp and close by, about 25 square miles.

Another long line was run by compass, and partly leveled, from the town of St. Marys to and through Okefinokee Swamp to Blounts Ferry on the Suwanee, and beyond the river to the town of Jasper, 15 or 16 miles further west. The high elevations found on this line indicate that a suitable canal route must be sought elsewhere.

Another party was charged with exploring and running a line of levels through the country between Ellaville, on the Suwanee, and St. Marks on the Gulf of Mexico. This line ran down the Suwanee for about 27 miles, and then took a generally westerly course, with many deviations, passing south of San Pedro Bay, and crossing in succession the Fenholloway, Enconfenee, Ocilla, Wacissa, and St. Marks rivers, all emptying into the gulf. The town of St. Marks was the terminal point of this line.

The country westward of the Suwanee was found interspersed with countless ponds, lakes, and swamps, forming in other respects what might be termed a low, flat, pine country. Lime rock frequently crops out, and the soil seems to be underlaid with rotten limestone. As the gulf is approached, the country is low and marshy for many miles from the coast.

At Ellaville the ground is 69·2 feet and the water surface of the Suwanee 39·6 feet above tide level. At Moseleys Ferry, 17 miles lower down, the ground had an elevation of 47 feet and the surface of the river 28 feet, showing a fall of 11·6 feet in 17 miles. In running past the southern border of San Pedro Bay, the water surface of the latter was found to be 85 feet above tide water. It appears, therefore, that it would not be advisable to run the canal immediately south of that bay after leaving the Suwanee River near Moseleys Ferry, for the reason that such a location would render it necessary either to reascend with locks or to make comparatively deep cuts.

The route of canal suggested by Assistant Engineer Fremont runs from Ellaville through the northern part of San Pedro Bay to St. Marks. This may be a favorable line, although longer than seems to be necessary. It is possible that the "bay" dips northward like Bay Swamp and a part of Okefinokee Swamp. There is no doubt that low ground prevails west of Aucilla River, on the line of canal suggested. It must be admitted, however, that little or nothing that can be regarded as entirely trustworthy is known of that portion of the line that would pass through the northerly section of San Pedro Bay.

Mr. R. L. Hunter made, in 1857, an examination of Okefinokee Swamp, by direction of the State government of Georgia. The elevations of some points are given in his report above low tide at St. Marys, and they compare as follows with the elevations determined by the recent survey:

	Elevations by survey of—	
	1857.	1878–'79.
Northern extremity of swamp	126·5	125
6 miles south, eastern border	121·5	124·6
19 miles south, eastern border	120	121·7
Surveyors Creek, western border	116·5	116·5
Southeast corner of swamp	116·5	120·2
Near Ellicotts Mound	111·5	114·9
Mixons Ferry	110·5	107·5
Northeast point of pocket	114·5	110·5
South border, half way to Ellicotts Mound	118·5	119·3

Besides the principal lines of survey already briefly described, several shorter lines were run, the results of which are given on the map accompanying this report.

BORINGS.

It was deemed desirable at the outset that some borings should be made at a few points of the probable site of the summit level of the canal, to ascertain the nature of the soil and, if possible, the rate of infiltration. It was also suggested that a few borings might be made in that part of Okefinokee Swamp which might be required to serve as a storage basin for feeding the canal, in order to determine the character of the subsoil, and its capacity of retaining water without resorting to expensive methods to prevent losses by filtration.

These borings, for some reason not fully explained, were not begun until toward the final conclusion of the field work, and when the available funds were nearly exhausted. It was then reported that there was some alleged defect in the boring apparatus, which rendered it impracticable to penetrate to the requisite depth.

Twelve borings were made, however—two on the left bank of St. Marys River between Traders Hill and Camp Pinckney; six in Okefinokee Swamp; two between that swamp and Bay Swamp, and two on the banks of Suwanee, near Blounts Ferry.

Samples of the material were also collected from the bed and shoals of Suwanee River and of ponds in Okefinokee Swamp, as well as from wells in the same vicinity.

As a general result of these shallow borings, so far as they can be assumed to be of value, it may be stated that sand appears in abundance in the upper strata. In the vicinity of the Suwanee and St. Marys River rotten limestone is found in the lower strata and crops out in the bed and ledges of Suwanee River, where the upper layer of loose material had been washed away.

Before a ship canal across the Florida peninsula can be properly located, and a reasonably exact estimate of its cost prepared, it will be necessary to expend a liberal sum in collecting additional information.

Numerous borings should be made at selected localities to such depths as will leave no doubt concerning the nature of the material that will have to be built upon or excavated. Numerous shafts or groups of shafts should be sunk in order that the amount of infiltration, especially during the dry season, may be determined with some degree of accuracy, as ultimately connected with the question of an economical supply of water.

Much work has yet to be done in examining the country west and southwest of Suwanee River, and several trial lines must be run before a canal route can be finally located.

Okefinokee Swamp and the country east and west of it between St. Marys River and the Suwanee may be said to be sufficiently known, through the recent survey, to locate a canal route, at least approximately. It will be necessary, however, to examine the interior of the swamp more thoroughly in order that the most suitable lines for feeders may be selected.

It is not certain, from the information gained, that the St. Marys River is superior to the Satilla for purposes of improvement for ship navigation. At a point 27 miles from Cumberland Sound they are only 4½ miles apart, and it may be deemed best to make a canal connection across this neck and use the Satilla. Both these streams require to be carefully examined.

An examination should also be made of the gulf coast in order that the best site for an artificial harbor may be selected, although there is probably not much choice in this respect at or near the terminus of the *shortest canal line.*

THE COMMERCIAL IMPORTANCE OF A FLORIDA SHIP CANAL.

The principal benefits which are expected to result directly from the onstruction of a ship canal across the Florida peninsula are:

First. Shorter routes between the ports of the Gulf of Mexico and hose of the Atlantic coast, both domestic and foreign.

Second. Avoiding the dangers of the passage through the Florida Straits.

In regard to the shortening of routes by means of such a canal, two xamples will suffice to explain the matter:

NEW ORLEANS TO NEW YORK.

	Nautical miles.
'resent route through Straits of Florida	1,790
Route by Florida Canal	1,293
Difference	497

NEW ORLEANS TO LIVERPOOL.

	Nautical miles.
'resent route	4,610
'anal route	4,198
Difference	412

A first-class freight steamer of 3,000 tons may average 11 knots an iour, making the trip between New Orleans and New York in an aver-ge of 6½ days, running time, or 7 days for the west-bound and 6 days or the east-bound trip. The difference in time is caused by the Gulf Stream, which has a velocity varying from 2 to 4 miles per hour. By he canal route she must perform part of the trip with less speed.

The length of the canal route selected is about 169 statute miles, or 147 nautical miles, to wit:

	Stat. M.	Naut. M.
From the bar to mouth of St. Marys River	5·5 or	4·8
Navigation of St. Marys River to Camp Pinckney	35·0 or	29·6
Canal	122·0 or	106·1
To deep water in Gulf	7·5 or	6·5
	169·0 or	147·0

In the river the speed will be about 8 knots an hour; in the canal not more than 4½ knots; and in the deep waters at the terminal points, 11 knots—the usual speed on the ocean. Including detention at locks, etc., the transit from ocean to Gulf will occupy about forty hours.

The steamer will require four days eight hours on ocean and Gulf; the whole trip from port to port, via canal, will therefore be performed in six days, an average shortening of passage of twelve hours. Steamers having a less speed than 11 knots per hour would save more than twelve hours, and sailing vessels, as a rule, would save much more than steamers.

The daily consumption of coal in a 3,000-ton steamer may be set down at 30 tons, producing a speed of 11 knots per hour, and the amount consumed in a trip between New Orleans and New York, by way of the Florida Straits, would be about 195 tons.

It is assumed from information derived from experts that a speed of 4½ knots in the canal can be maintained with a consumption of 10 tons of coal per day. If this be so, only 146 tons of coal would be required on a trip from New Orleans to New York through the canal, being a saving of about 50 tons in favor of the canal route.

Fifty tons of coal, at $3.50 per ton, probably a fair average price for a series of years, amounts to $175 saved on a single trip one way, by the steamer using the canal.

The daily expenses of the steamer while running amount to $295, including coal, or $190 without coal.

The running expenses of a trip between New York and New Orleans, by Florida Straits, are therefore $1,917.50, to wit:

Expenses in 6½ days, at $190	$1,235.00
195 tons of coal, at $3.50	682.50
	1,917.50

This saving of $266.50,* or only 14 per cent. of the present running expenses, indicates that the tonnage dues through the canal must be light in order to attract business.

By the introduction of steam and the extension of our light-house system, the former dangers of the Florida passes have been greatly diminished, and unless vessels are passed through the canal under light tolls and with great dispatch there would be no great inducements to use the route.

In addition to the small saving in running expenses, there will be some reduction (not susceptible of close computation) in freight charges and insurance, which will be taken into account when the question of tolls is considered.

Steamship companies frequently do not insure their vessels in insurance companies; they find it more to their advantage to run the risk of the occasional loss of a vessel. But whether insured or not, the risk will be diminished by using the Florida Canal, and must be taken into account.

A leading authority on marine insurance states that a Florida ship-canal, if located north of Cedar Keys, on the Gulf, and of St. Augustine, on the Atlantic, with good harbors and good approaches at each end, would cause a reduction of insurance rates on vessels and cargoes using such a canal, particularly on risks by sailing vessels bound into the Gulf; but that it would be hazardous to give a quotation of what the reduction would amount to.

The rates of insurance from New Orleans and Mobile to Liverpool are about double what they are from New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and Baltimore to that port, while the distance is but one-third greater. It is known, however, that all vessels sailing between Gulf ports and Europe, or between Gulf ports and the Atlantic ports of the United States, are presumed by insurance companies to pass through the Straits of Florida, and that the rate of premium is based upon that usage.

It appears that the length of a route, and exposure to the common vicissitudes of a trip, are less decisive in fixing rates than certain short portions of the route which offer peculiar risks.

Before the improvement of the South Pass vessels were frequently detained at the mouth of the Mississippi for days and weeks. Vessels of the largest class now enter or leave the river fully loaded without an

* This saving of $266.50 is produced as follows:

Expenses in six days, at $190 per day	$1,140
146 tons of coal, at $3.50 per ton	511
Total	1,651

Difference in favor of canal per trip ($1,917.50—$1,651)=$266.50.

iour's detention. The insurance rates, however, have not been lowered. The average length of time of the trip from Liverpool to New Orleans has certainly been shortened, and the fact that the rate of insurance has remained the same may naturally be ascribed in great part to the risks of the Straits of Florida.

Official statements have been received as to the number of vessels, tonnage, and value of cargoes entered and cleared at Gulf ports and bound through the Straits of Florida, during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1879.

The substance of this information is herewith given in a condensed statement:

Foreign ports.						Domestic ports.			
Entered.			Cleared.			Entered.		Cleared.	
Vessels.	Tonnage.	Value.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Value.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
761	739,062	$3,362,521	1,051	955,378	$86,839,554	.....	435,289	.....	447,861

The reports received from official sources in relation to the domestic or coastwise commerce are defective. For several ports the number of vessels was not stated; in some cases the tonnage for last year was not given, and had to be approximated from reports of preceding years; and scarcely anything is known of the value of coastwise cargoes, since the statutory law, regulating vessels engaged in domestic commerce, does not require the values of domestic commodities to be entered upon the manifests. There are also numbers of vessels sailing under custom-house licenses, which they are not required to report.

For the last fiscal year the result as to tonnage is as follows, with the restrictions just mentioned:

	Tons.
Total tonnage through the Florida Straits engaged in foreign commerce...	1,694,440
Total tonnage through the Florida Straits engaged in coastwise commerce.	883,150
Aggregate	2,577,590

There can be no doubt that this tonnage will be largely exceeded during the present fiscal year. The influence of the improvements at the mouth of the Mississippi is just beginning to be felt, and already the growing movement of agricultural products towards New Orleans excites serious attention in business circles.

Mr. C. Bussey, president of the Chamber of Commerce at New Orleans, furnishes the following statement:

	Bales.
Receipts of cotton from September 1, 1879, to January 23, 1880.....	1,161,404
Receipts of cotton for same period last year	857,394
Receipts of cotton from September 1, 1878, to September 1, 1879.....	1,436,134

At that rate the receipts of cotton during the year ending September 1, 1880, will be nearly 2,000,000 bales, of which it is estimated that fully 95 per cent will be shipped to Europe, amounting to about 475,000 net tons for cotton alone that will need transportation.

Since the increased depth was secured at the South Pass, there has been a reduction in freight on cotton averaging, during the year, one-fourth to three-eighths cents per pound, and from 6 to 10 cents per bushel on grain. The saving on freight on these two staples during the year is believed to be upwards of $2,000,000.

A letter was received from Mr. G. H. Rea, president of the Mississippi Valley Transportation Company, which is doing an extensive business in transporting grain, flour, and western produce generally, from St. Louis to New Orleans, by means of barges and towboats.

It is stated in that letter that transportation has materially increased on the Mississippi River since its entrance at the Gulf has been improved, and that a gradual increase of foreign shipping is expected; and that an increase of the depth of the river to 8 feet at all seasons, from St. Louis to New Orleans, will reduce freight rates permanently to 5 cents per bushel, which is now the lowest rate at the most favorable stages of the river. At present the average rate per annum is 7.6 cents, and for 5 months of the year it is 9 cents.

The belief is also expressed in the communication that a Florida ship canal would increase the transportation business on the Mississippi tenfold in three years, as the saving in insurance, distance, and time to foreign and Atlantic ports would be equal to a saving of 25 per cent on present freights to these ports.

It is further stated that for many years the average freight charges have been 35 per cent more from New Orleans to foreign ports than from Atlantic ports, and on grain, for part of the time, 50 per cent more; and it is thought that the canal would reduce ocean freight 20 per cent after deducting the tolls paid for passage through the canal.

Unless the foregoing discussion be greatly at fault, this estimated reduction of 20 per cent in ocean freights is somewhat overstated, so far as it applies to transatlantic freights.

In regard to the dangers of the passage through the Florida Straits some data were obtained from the salvage court at Key West, Fla., by which questions of salvage are adjusted in cases of marine disasters occurring to vessels passing said straits, and also from the superintendent of the Life-Saving Service of the United States.

Salvage cases adjusted in the United States district court, southern district of Florida, from 1853 to 1879.

Year.	Vessels.	Values.	Salvage.	Expenses.	Salvages and expenses.	
					Total.	Average per annum.
1853 to 1857 (5 years)	326	*$11,124,627	$622,252	$1,177,254	$1,799,506	$359,900
1858 to 1872 (15 years)	161	†5,925,590	1,031,303	1,458,908	2,490,211	166,000
1873 to 1879 (6½ years)	46	‡2,776,859	289,266	226,212	515,478	79,300
Total	533	19,827,076	1,942,821	2,862,374	4,805,195	.....

* From reports of underwriters made according to Marvin on "Wrecks and Salvage."

† Total values not stated; therefore unknown. Values stated here represent only the property saved.

‡ In several cases, there being no appraisement, nor any value agreed upon, it being unnecessary the values were taken from the libel. These values are always in excess.

It appears that in the 26½ years from 1853 to 1878 the average annual cost to shippers for salvage and expenses has gradually diminished, probably from causes already indicated.

The statement received from the superintendent of the Life-Saving Service contains the names, description, tonnage, and nationality of 169 vessels that were at various points of the route referred to either disabled or totally lost during the 5 years from July 1, 1874, to June 30, 1879, with the month when the accident happened, the port sailed from or bound to, loss of lives and loss in money value, place of disas-

, and the nature of the casualty. The most important data in the tement is condensed in the following table:

o. of ssels.	Aggregate tonnage	Casualties.	Value destroyed.
91	35,168	Partially disabled	$477,970
59	18,830	Totally lost	1,251,518
19	8,223	Disabled, lost, or not known	Unknown.
169	62,221		(?)

The total value of property lost, including those 19 vessels where the s was not reported, is probably $2,000,000, an average of $400,000 r year.

But if it be required to know how many vessels, during the last five ars, met with accidents in going around the capes of Florida that ght naturally have taken the canal route, if it had existed, on account its greater safety, all those vessels must be omitted, the routes of ich, although through the straits of Florida, or through portions them, would be beyond the influence of a Florida ship-canal.

The following statement relates exclusively to vessels lost or disabled ring the five years ending June 30, 1879, that might with advantage ve used the Florida Canal:

Modified statement.

o. of ssels.	Aggregate tonnage.	Casualties.	Value destroyed.
35	15,986	Partially disabled	$204,480
22	10,507	Total lost	568,180
9	3,918	Disabled, lost or unknown	Unknown.
66	30,411		?

By averaging the losses where they are unknown, it would appear at the value of floating property that might have been saved during ese five years, had a Florida ship canal existed and been used by ch of those sixty-six vessels, is approximately about $894,000, or 78,800 per annum.

CANAL TOLLS.

An iron freight steamer of 3,000 tons costs at present prices about 25,000.

On account of the many risks to which this kind of property is subcted, owners calculate on an annual profit of 10 per cent on the capil invested, another 10 per cent for depreciation and wear and tear; d, since the larger lines of steamers generally do not insure their vesls in insurance companies, another 10 per cent must be realized to ovide for replacing lost or worn-out ships.

The daily running expenses of such a steamer while at sea, consumg 30 tons of coal per day, are about $295, which includes pay of offirs and crew, smaller repairs, fuel, etc.

While in port the expenses per day will be for fuel (3 tons) $10.50, nd for other items the same as at sea ($190), making a total of $200.50.

The shore expenses, comprising superintendence and all office and ther work incidental to the general management, are usually estimated t 15 per cent of the running expenses when at sea, or $44.25 per day.

For depreciation, wear and tear, and insurance against partial and total loss, 20 per cent of the capital invested is allowed, equal to $178.08 per day.

A voyage between New Orleans and New York around the capes of Florida requires an average of about six and one-half days actual steaming; time in port averages four days; total time per trip, ten and one-half days. The cost of a single trip averages, therefore, as follows:

6½ days' steaming, at $295 per day	$1,917.50
4 days in port, at $200.50 per day	802.00
10½ days' shore expenses, at $44.25	464.62
10½ days' depreciation and insurance, at $178.08	1,869.84
Total expenses	5,053.96
Add 10½ days' profit on the investment, at 10 per cent per annum	934.92
Average per trip	5,988.88

A freight steamer of 3,000 tons, built for the trade, will carry 8,000 bales of cotton at 500 pounds. The amount of freight per bale of cotton would be, therefore, 74.86 cents, or $2.99 per ton.

During one year the vessel will make thirty-four and three-fourths trips, and the total receipts should be $208,113.58.

The above rate of $2.98 per ton freight is based on the supposition that full cargoes are made on each trip all the year round. In practice this is not the case; the rates will generally be much higher during the busy season, to compensate for losses from light cargoes at other times. But the method adopted for calculating the average cost of freight will afford a tolerably fair comparison between the present rates and the canal route.

The same steamer going through the canal would probably perform the voyage in six days, using only 10 tons of coal per day while in the canal, thus saving about 50 tons of coal on the trip. Her expenses while under steam will average $275 per day. Remaining four days in port, one trip will consume ten days, and the cost of it will be as follows:

Six days' steaming, at $275 per day	$1,650.00
Four days in port, at $200.50 per day	802.00
Ten days' shore expenses, at $44.25 per day	442.50
Ten days' depreciation and insurance, at 781.08	1,780.80
Total expenses	4,675.30
Add ten days' profit at 10 per cent per annum	890.40
Average per trip	5,565.70

With a cargo of 8,000 bales of cotton, the freight per bale would average 69.57 cents, or $2.78 per ton; equal to a saving of 21 cents per ton over the cost of freight through the Straits of Florida.

To obtain the whole cost of transportation, insurance must be added.

The average price of cotton all the year round in New Orleans is about 9 cents per pound, or $180 per ton. The marine insurance per steamer from New Orleans to New York is about ¾ per cent at present, or $1.35 per ton of cotton. By the outside route, the cost of shipping cotton to New York would be, therefore, $4.34 per ton (=$2.99 freight and $1.35 insurance).

By going through the canal it is expected that the rate of insurance will be lowered about 25 per cent, or by 34 cents per ton. To ship a ton of cotton from New Orleans to New York by this new route would then cost about $3.79; i.e., $2.78 for freight and $1.01 insurance. The saving per ton of freight in using the canal route would be, therefore, equal to $4.34 less $3.79, or 55 cents. In order that the canal may attract busi-

ness, these savings must not be entirely absorbed by canal tolls. About three-fourths of the savings may be paid for tolls, the balance being clear gain for the shipper. The tolls should be, therefore, at most 42 cents per ton of freight, and a 3,000-ton steamer carrying 2,000 tons of freight could afford to pay $840 for passing through the canal.

If the registered tonnage be adopted on the basis of toll charges a vessel of 3,000 tons measurement could be charged two-thirds of 42 cents, or about 28 cents per ton for tolls. The same charges should apply to vessels plying between the Gulf ports and the ports of Europe, and indeed to all vessels using the canal, regardless of their nationality or the ports of arrival and departure.

Allowing for somewhat more favorable premises than those adopted in the foregoing discussion, the tolls might, perhaps, be carried as high as 35 to 37 cents per ton of registered tonnage during active and prosperous seasons, while at other times it might be necessary to drop them to 25 cents.

A very large proportion of the freight seeking export from the Mississippi Valley by way of the Gulf of Mexico is carried in sailing vessels, and while it is doubtful in some degree to what extent swift-sailing steamers would take the canal in preference to the Straits of Florida, the inducements offered to sailing vessels by the artificial route would be of the most positive and substantial character. Without going into the discussion of this point, it will suffice to state that sailing vessels could much better afford to pay the tonnage dues than steamers, besides incurring the necessary expenses of towage.

That tolls on a Florida Canal must be light to benefit commerce is evident from a brief reference to the Suez Canal. A steamer leaving Plymouth, England, for Bombay, in passing south of Africa, had to travel about 11,600 miles. By going through the Suez Canal the trip is shortened to 6,350 miles, a saving of 5,250 miles. Taking into account the many delays incidental to a voyage of nearly 12,000 miles, British authorities estimate the saving in time at 36 days. The canal dues are now 10 francs per registered ton.

A steamer of 3,000 tons, such as has been considered in previous calculations, would pay about $7,200 for going through the Suez Canal, i. e., $6,000 for dues proper and $1,200 for extra dues, such as pilotage, towage, etc. The saving of 36 days' current expenses alone amounts to $10,620 at $2.95 a day, which is greatly augmented when the saving in depreciation, insurance, etc., per trip and the possibility of making more trips per year is taken into account.

Inasmuch as the Florida Canal will cost about $50,000,000 for construction and $500,000 per annum for maintenance and administration, it is evident that if only as much tonnage as passed through the Florida Straits during the last fiscal year (about 2,600,000 tons) should pass through the canal yearly, at a charge of 28 cents per ton toll, the net profit will amount to something less than one-half of 1 per cent on the original cost of the work.

Unless it can be shown, therefore, that there is likely to be a very large increase of freights seeking this route at no distant day, the construction of the canal as a private enterprise should be regarded as commercially infeasible.

That such an increase may take place does not seem to be at all improbable, for the reasons briefly stated below.

The total cotton crop in the United States amounted in 1878 to 4,694,944 bales of 500 pounds, probably the largest ever raised up to that time. In the Gulf States and States bordering on the Mississippi

the quantity produced was 3,189,268 bales, or nearly 70 per cent of the whole crop. The report of the Department of Agriculture of 1876 shows that the center of the cotton area was then rapidly moving west. At the present time more than three-eighths of the whole crop is grown west of the Mississippi. Texas is now the leading cotton-growing State.

It is expected by the statistician of the Department of Agriculture that by the year 1886, 10,000,000 bales will be annually raised in this country, if the consumption of cotton in the world should demand it. Of the cotton raised in the Gulf region it has been estimated that about 95 per cent is shipped to foreign countries, directly or indirectly, by routes that would be shortened by a Florida ship-canal. If the quantity raised in 1886 should amount to only three-fourths of 100,000,000 or 7,500,000 bales, at least 5,000,000 bales, equal to 1,250,000 tons, would require transportation from Gulf ports.

The movement of wheat and other grain from St. Louis to New Orleans has greatly increased of late, but the official statistics for the last fiscal year have not yet been received, nor would they sufficiently indicate the impetus which trade on the Mississippi has received from the improvement of the South Pass, as it was not until the year 1879 that its effects began to be felt. But the Mississippi transportation business, and the export trade at New Orleans, must necessarily continue to grow from another cause. In 1849 the center of the wheat-growing belt was traversed by meridian 81 west of Greenwhich, which passes through the middle part of Lake Erie and the eastern margin of the State of Ohio. In 1859 it had advanced to meridian 85° 24′ west; in 1869 to meridian 88°; in 1877 to 89° 06′, or to the meridian about midway between Chicago and St. Louis. It is reported at the present time to be west of the Mississippi River. The center of the corn crops was, in 1849, under meridian 85° west; in 1877 it was about identical with the center of wheat.

The production of wheat was 100,485,946 bushels in 1849 and 365,094,-800 bushels in 1877; that of corn 592,071,104 bushels in 1849 and 1,342,-568,000 bushels in 1877.

The rate of movement west is necessarily slow in later years, amounting, perhaps, to not much over 10 miles per year, but wheat will progress faster than corn, as large areas of land west of Nebraska are continually brought under cultivation and devoted to the raising of wheat.

This westward movement of the grain center causes St. Louis to grow in importance as a receiving and distributing depot of cereals, while the cost of transporting grain from the west by rail to eastern ports will correspondingly increase.

The British and Canadian Governments are making great efforts to secure as large a portion as possible of the carrying trade of the west by improving its water routes to the seaboard. Within three years from the present time the completion of the Welland Canal enlargement will enable British steamships of about 2,000 tons to receive their cargoes of grain and provisions at Chicago and other lake ports and carry them directly to Europe.

In the present condition of the lakes and Erie Canal line the average cost of carrying wheat from Chicago to New York is 8.15 cents per bushel.

By the enlargement of the Canadian canals, to be finished within a few years, British vessels can afford to carry grain from Chicago to Montreal for 6 cents per bushel; and Montreal is 250 miles nearer than New York to the European market.

The British and Canadian governments have nearly completed works

which will cost over $30,000,000, in addition to earlier improvements on which $24,000,000 were expended, making a total of over $54,000,000 spent in order to control, as far as possible, the carrying trade of our grain-raising States.

With the completion of this cheap foreign water route, penetrating into the very heart of our agricultural region, the United States will possess no transportation line that can compete with it on equal terms, unless the Mississippi River is improved, and all obstacles are removed that stand in the way of the most economical transportation to foreign and domestic markets of the surplus products of the Mississippi Valley.

With the improvement of this southern route accomplished, the Mississippi River will become the great and successful competitor of the Canada water line, for the reason that the center of the grain region is gradually working away from the latter. Moreover, the northern route will be closed by ice during five months in the year, while the other will be open at all seasons.

From a national point of view a Florida ship-canal is an object of importance, as part of a comprehensive scheme for improving and cheapening our means of water transportation from the heart of our grain and cotton growing regions to foreign ports, and there would seem to be as little need of attempting to fix its rentable or money-earning value as in undertaking to apply the same rule to the works of river and harbor improvement prosecuted by the United States Government.

In the case of the Canadian canals it is not pretended that they pay from a merely mercantile point of view. The chief engineer of public works of the Dominion of Canada, in his report on the navigation of the River St. Lawrence, July 9, 1874, says:

> It is well known that none of the (Canadian) canals have paid the interest of the money expended in their construction, or indeed very little more than the working expenses connected with them. Still, few who compare the past with the present condition of Canada will doubt (but?) that they have been of far greater benefit to the country than the aggregate amount of their cost.

The Suez Canal, costing about $60,000,000, was first opened to navigation in November, 1869. In 1871 the number of vessels using the canal was 765, of an aggregate tonnage of about 1,142,200 tons; the receipts were $1,798,700. In 1874 1,264 vessels passed it, of 2,423,670 aggregate tonnage; the receipts were about $4,900,000.

The traffic is reported to have materially increased since that time.

The transit dues on the Panama Canal projected by M. de Lesseps have been fixed at 15 francs ($3) per ton, and more, if necessary, according to the concession granted by the Government of the United States of Colombia. It is calculated that 6,000,000 tons will annually pass through the canal, yielding an annual revenue of 90,000,000 francs, or about $18,000,000, and it is thought that these numbers will increase gradually. The total cost of the work is estimated at $170,000,000. The revenue would therefore amount to a little over 10 per cent of the capital invested.

The Florida Ship-Canal is estimated to cost about $50,000,000, and, as already stated, the aggregate tonnage which passed through the Florida Straits during the last fiscal year amounted to about 2,600,000 tons. All of this could have saved twelve to fourteen hours in time of transit if the Florida Canal had existed.

To earn the current expenses for administration and maintenance, about 1,758,000 tons must go through the canal annually at 28 cents per ton toll.

To earn the current expenses and 5 per cent on the cost of construction, about 10,714,300 tons must pass through the canal at 28 cents per ton toll.

It would appear, therefore, that with the canal dues fixed at 28 cents per ton of registered tonnage, the tolls on a little more than two-thirds of the amount of tonnage which passed through the Straits of Florida during the last fiscal year would enable the canal to pay its current expenses, while in order to pay in addition thereto 5 per cent interest on the construction capital, four times the Florida Straits tonnage of last year must pass through the canal.

It is probable that some years after the completion of the canal, if constructed at an early day, enough tonnage would use that passage to pay current expenses, perhaps somewhat more. But it is impossible to answer satisfactorily the question of the capacity of the enterprise to yield a moderate interest on the capital invested.

SUMMARY OF PRELIMINARY PROJECT SUBMITTED.

Certain modifications of the plan proposed by Assistant Engineer Fremont, and set forth in his report hereunto appended, are suggested, the objects sought to be attained by the modified project being a greater number of locks of less lift; a shorter canal terminating in an artificial harbor on the Gulf coast; a smaller cross-section of the canal; locks of greater length and less width, and diminished cost of construction.

The estimates and calculations for water supply are based upon a cross-section of canal 80 feet wide at bottom and 25 feet deep, with slopes of 1 on 2, carried up to a point 5 feet above the water line, terminating in a berme 10 feet in width on each side. Above this the slopes of cuttings will vary with the material from 1 on 1 to 1 on 2, the cost of the cuttings being estimated for slopes of 2 on 3. The water surface will be 180 feet in width. The canal is widened, however, to 155 feet at bottom and 255 feet at top for 1,000 feet above and below each pair of locks, to permit the approach of vessels, and there are passing places 1,600 feet by 30 feet, placed 6 miles part.

The locks are 500 feet in useful length (from the end of gate-chamber to face of breast wall), 65 feet wide at the gates, with 25 feet water on the sills. They are arranged in pairs, side by side, to prevent the interruption of traffic during repairs, and the walls are carried to 5 feet above the water line. The lifts are 10 feet and 15 feet.

The section adopted has greater width at bottom, and a depth and surface width somewhat less than recommended by the technical subcommittee of the Paris congress for the interoceanic canal, as shown below.

	Bottom width.	Surface width.	Depth.
Panama Canal	22^{m} = 72·18 feet	56^{m} = 183·73 feet	8.50^{m} = 27·89 feet.
Florida Canal	80 feet	180 feet	25 feet.

The Paris congress, however, in general session, recommended for the Panama Canal a bottom width of 25 meters (82 feet), a surface width of 70 meters (229·66 feet), and a depth of 8·50 meters (27·89 feet).

The locks have about the same dimensions as those advised for the Panama route, except in the matter of the lift. The subcommittee reporting upon this subject say that in view of the facility of construct-

ing and operating the gates, the height of the lift should not be very great. High lifts also lead to high embankments, which are also a source of danger. On the other hand, navigation should not be embarrassed by an unnecessary number of lockages; 3·50 meters to 4 meters (11·5 to 13·12 feet) is considered a good mean, 4 meters (13·12 feet to be the maximum.

LOCATION.

The canal follows the route selected by Mr. Fremont as far as the western end of his summit level, and there diverges to the northward to avoid two crossings of the Suwannee, regaining and crossing the former line near Ellaville. At this point it turns to the southward, and by a straight line 45 miles long, running south 40 degrees west, reaches the Gulf coast at a point 8 miles southeast of the mouth of the Fenholloway. This gives a total length of 122 miles of canal, or from the entrance of Cumberland Sound to deep water on the Gulf, 168·5 miles, being 24·5 miles shorter than the line to Saint Mark's. The easterly portion of this line coincides with that proposed by Mr. Fremont. The westerly part deviates from it, and is marked on the chart by a heavy broken line.

The ascent from the Saint Mary's is achieved by means of 7 lift-locks, each of 15 feet lift, to the summit level, 108 feet above tide. No guard-lock is deemed necessary, the lift of the first lock being greater than any rise of flood in the Saint Mary's.

The summit level at a point 6 miles from its eastern end, or 11½ miles from Camp Pinckney, where it leaves the St. Mary's River, enters the Okefinokee Swamp, through which it extends a distance of 22 miles. Fourteen miles further on it reaches the Suwannee River, about 3 miles below Blount's Ferry, the waters of which will be raised by means of a dam to the height of the summit level and taken into the canal. Crossing the river in the lake so formed, the canal continues 18 miles further to the end of the summit level, which has a length of 62 miles. From this point the line descends by two locks, each of 10 feet lift, crosses the Alapaha, and turning again to the south, crosses the Withlacoochee River near Ellaville, and thence runs through the center of San Pedro Bay, descending from it by five locks of 15 feet and one of 10 feet lift, directly to the level of the Gulf.

Along the western coast of the Florida peninsula the depth of water increases very slowly as we move out from the shore, so that a depth of 26 feet is not found nearer than about 7½ miles from the land.

A channel must, therefore, be excavated from the mouth of the canal to the deep water of the Gulf. It will need to be protected by jetties, and will form a harbor where vessels will lie in safety.

The great depth of the canal renders it desirable, from considerations of security, that it should be placed chiefly in excavation. All the streams crossing its line should, therefore, be taken into the canal. Dams and waste-weirs must be provided at suitable points to carry off the surplus of flood water, and silt basins will generally be required in the valleys of the streams, to collect and retain the sedimentary matter brought down in floods until it can be removed by dredging.

The important rivers crossed are the Suwannee below Blount's Ferry, with a drainage area of about 1,200 square miles in addition to the portion draining through the Okefinokee Swamp, which will be regulated by the collecting reservoirs of the swamp; the Alapaha, with a

drainage area of 840 square miles, which sinks, however, and disappears in dry times at a point about 10 miles above its junction with the Suwannee; and the Withlacoochee, draining 1,600 square miles.

The first is taken into the summit level. The two latter, which are crossed just above their junction with the Suwannee, will fall into the second level on the western side. These only will require expensive dams or overfalls. A more detailed study may indicate the propriety of carrying the two last-named streams under the canal by a series of low arches. The soft limestone forming the bottom of the river would probably not resist the scour of the stream in floods, and would need very expensive protection.

WATER REQUIRED FOR SUMMIT LEVEL.

Water will be required for the summit level of the canal, 62 miles in length, as follows:

	Cubic feet per second.
To supply losses by evaporation, at the rate of $\frac{3}{10}$ inch per day	17·00
To supply losses by leakage, especially through the double lock-gates at the ends of the summit level	120·08
For 75 lockfuls of water to permit 25 lockages per day in each direction	487·50
Total	624·50

Evaporation varies from 0·25 to 0·30 inch per day. The former is the result of a calculation for this place by Lieut. M. L. Smith, U. S. A. The latter, having been ascertained by numerous observations elsewhere, is adopted.

The leakage through lock gates is an exceedingly uncertain and difficult quantity to estimate, depending as it does upon the condition of the gates and the care with which they are operated. On the Erie Canal it has been found to be 12½ cubic feet per second for each pair of gates. On the Chesapeake and Ohio, Mr. Fisk's observations, made during a suspension of navigation, when the locks were carefully closed, gave but 2½ cubic feet per second, or only one fifth as much. Other observations, made under less favorable circumstances, show a loss of 5 to 6 cubic feet per second. Those upon the Erie are made during a busy season, when the gates are very imperfectly closed. The large dock-gates of Liverpool and London do not appear to leak appreciably. The gates of the Florida Ship Canal would be carefully constructed and maintained in good repair. They will be opened less frequently than those of a small canal and closed with much greater care. Relatively to their size and the head upon them, they may leak about five times as much as those of the Chesapeake and Ohio. The waste through them has, therefore, been estimated to be about 30 cubic feet per second for each pair of gates, or 120 cubic feet per second for the double locks at both ends of the summit level.

Positive data with respect to the waste in a ship canal do not exist. The Suez Canal, being at a sea level and without locks, needed no provision against loss of any kind; yet it is stated in Mr. Debauve's Manuel de L'Ingénieur des Ponts et Chaussées, that of the 8,000,000 cubic meters of tidal water entering the canal from the Red Sea only one-half flows out and returns to the sea with the ebb-tide, the rest being used to make up the losses of the canal. Eight million cubic meters per *tide* amounts to about 3,000 cubic feet per second for the entire day. Nor did the North Sea Canal require any such provision. It has a surplus of water, which is pumped out.

In the various projects for crossing the American isthmus, we find various assumptions which appear to have no satisfactory basis, either speculative or experimental.

The committee of the Paris congress do not appear to have occupied themselves with this question. One of the reports on the Panama Canal with locks estimates 10 per cent on 80 lockages as sufficient to cover all losses, or about 1 cubic meter, equal to 35 cubic feet, per second; while the total quantity of water estimated as necessary for the Nicaragua project, less the quantity for three lockages per hour, would indicate a supposed loss of nearly 6 cubic meters, or 200 cubic feet per second.

After comparing all these estimates, it is believed that the quantities given above for the Florida Canal are ample, but not exaggerated.

For each vessel passing the summit level it has been estimated that 1½ lockfulls of water would be consumed. Even with double locks a smaller quantity could not be safely estimated.

The French engineers Graeff and Comoy, who are experienced in these works, recommend that 2 lockfulls per boat should in every case be provided, lest there should occur delays and inconvenience.

No account has yet been taken of the losses by filtration and percolation through the soil, usually the most important source of waste. The question is one of the greatest importance. It has been examined by the board of internal improvement in 1829, and by Lieut. M. L. Smith, U. S. Army, in 1855. In 1832 experiments were made to test the matter by Lieut. Pickell, U. S. Army.

The board of internal improvement anticipate, upon what seems to be insufficient data, that the waste of the summit level of a small canal (not including lockage) will be supplied by infiltration. According to Lieut. M. L. Smith—

> It may be safely stated that for all depths greater than 5 feet the gain by infiltration will exceed the loss by filtration; that this will continue from July until February in each year, eight months of the twelve. After February the streams become sensibly diminished, ponds and surface water generally disappear, and the country remains dry until the rains set in, which is usually in June at latest.

He deduces, from the experiments of Lieut. Pickell, a supply to the canal of 0·75 cubic foot per hour per square foot of filtering surface; that is, of surface above the water line of the canal, and more than 5 feet below the natural surface of the ground.

On the other hand, the board of internal improvement say that the sandy upper stratum and the rotten limestone substratum will facilitate to a high degree the filtration, and the numberless ponds, etc., form a strong indication of the facility afforded by the ground for the transmission through it of water to inferior levels. These indications would rather lead to the conclusion that, while the water from the higher levels would filter into the canal, it would also pass out of it into lower ground, and that as the water contained in the ground above the summit level became exhausted the loss would exceed the supply. On the other hand, 42 miles of canal through the high central plateau would be the nearest outlet for the water contained in the soil for several miles on each side of it, while the waste would probably occur only at a short portion at each end.

In reducing the experiments of Lieut. Pickell with shafts, the head under which infiltration took place was not considered. According to the observations of Darcy, the percolation of water through sand is in direct proportion to the head. The mean heads under which the measured quantities came into the shafts was from 8 to 10 feet, and the water rose to a level from 5 to 15 feet below the surface of the ground.

The ground along the summit level is about 12 feet above the water surface, which would give a head for infiltration of 2 or 3 feet by the entire depth of the canal, and the deduced result of 0·75 cubic foot per hour corrected for head and surface would give 6·25 cubic feet per hour per linear foot of canal bank. Apply this to both sides of the summit level between the St. Marys slope and the Suwanee, 42 miles, and we obtain 770 cubic feet per second as the infiltration into this portion of the summit level. The part between the Suwanee and the Alapaha is not considered, because it is supposed that the loss on the lower side would be equal to the gain on the upper side. But the more important objection to the application of the results of Lieut. Pickell's experiments lies in the fact that they were made during the rainy months of a very rainy season, 28¼ inches of rain having fallen during the three months in which they were carried on.

According to Lieut. Smith, after February "streams sensibly diminish, ponds and surface water disappear, and the country remains dry. * * *." The lakes referred to by him as evidently receiving large supplies by infiltration are not on the summit, but in the proximity of land of much greater altitude.

The question, then, of a supply by infiltration during the dry season can not be regarded as settled; there will doubtless be a gain during the rainy season and the earlier portion of the dry months, but during the latter part of this season, and particularly in years of little rain or protracted drought, a supply would be necessary to meet losses from filtration.

During such times as it would be required, it is estimated that the losses from filtration, as deduced from observations upon smaller canals, will be about 10 cubic feet per mile per second, or for the summit level, 620 cubic feet per second, and this quantity must be provided for the period in which there will be no gain from infiltration, say for at least two months of the dry season. It may be assumed that other levels will receive supplies from other sources sufficient to meet the loss from this cause.

The whole quantity required at such times will, therefore, be—

	Cubic feet per second.
For evaporation, leakage, and lockage	624.5
For filtration	620
A total of	1,247·5

WATER SUPPLY.

The drainage area available for the summit level is, according to Mr. Fremont, 1,200 square miles, or 33,454,080,000 square feet.

The average annual rainfall at St. Marys is 54 inches, or 4·5 feet, and, according to Mr. Fremont, it is a well-known fact that a larger quantity of rain falls in the interior (the swamp) than at corresponding points upon the coast.

	Cubic feet.
Four and a half feet of water on 1,200 square miles would furnish, per annum	150,543,360,000
One-fourth of which may be collected	37,635,840,000
An average per second of	1,193

This may be considered about sufficient, if it can be utilized.

The dry season, according to Lieut. Smith, extends over three months, or March, April, and May. Storage must, therefore, be provided for

one-fourth of the average annual collectible rainfall, or one-sixteenth of the entire fall (9,409,000,000 cubic feet).

The construction of a deep reservoir to hold all this water, by excavations in the flat surface of the swamp, would involve a matter of some 348,000,000 cubic yards, and a cost of over $50,000,000. It can not, therefore, be considered.

Basins in which to retain this quantity can be obtained only by embanking the low margins of Okefinokee Swamp, and allowing the water to spread over the surface, forming immense shallow ponds.

Two reservoirs in the swamp will be required, one on each side of the canal, having their deepest points at Ellicotts Mound and Mixons Ferry, respectively. The first to contain one-third of the required amount, or 3,200,000,000 cubic feet, the second 6,300,000,000 cubic feet. The average slope of the bottom of the swamp towards these deepest points is assumed to be about 1 in 8,000. Then, supposing the surface of the first to be a quadrant and the second $\frac{8}{10}$ of a circle, their depths will be $d = \left(\frac{3 \times 3,200,000,000}{8000^2 \times \pi \times 0.25}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = 5.7$ feet for the first, and $d = \left(\frac{3 \times 6,300,000,000}{8000^2 \times \pi \times 0.80}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = 4.9$ feet for the second.

A daily evaporation of one-fourth of an inch on the surface of these two reservoirs for 90 days is equal to a loss of 5,299;000,000 cubic feet, leaving 4,201,000,000 cubic feet, which will furnish 540.25 cubic feet per second, a quantity not quite sufficient to supply the canal's losses, leaving filtration out of the question.

Observations upon Ocean Pond and Cone Pond show them to have lost 30 inches in depth during an entire dry season. Suppose the loss to be 30 inches, and we have remaining but 313 cubic feet per second, which is only about one-half of what is required to supply the canal's losses, leaving filtration unprovided for.

But, as already stated, the Suwannee is taken into the summit level. This river, according to the Board of Internal Improvement, has a low-water discharge of 614 cubic feet per second. Of this a portion comes through the swamp and will be intercepted by the collecting reservoirs, a portion proportionate to its drainage area, or about one-third. The other two-thirds, 410 cubic feet, will be available to supply losses. This, together with 313 cubic feet per second from the Okefinokee reservoirs, would supply with certainty 723 cubic feet per second, an amount slightly in excess of what would be needed for lockages and waste, leaving almost nothing for filtration.

The reservoir capacity of the Suwannee could only be made available by raising its surface and that of the summit level, the bottom of the miter-sills remaining the same. Each foot so raised would store as much as would furnish 40 cubic feet of water per second for 90 days.

A further study of the question of filtration and infiltration seems to be necessary to be made in the dry season and along the summit level. Data could thus be obtained upon which a definite judgment could be formed.

The interior and higher portions of the peninsula of Florida consist of clay intermingled with calcareous formation. Coral beds, some of great age, underlie most of the State, and with the alluvions extending 20 to 30 miles from the coast are covered with deposits from the gulf or ocean.

On the eastern slope the soil is sandy, underlaid with clay and covered from 1 to 5 feet deep with vegetable earth. On the western side the same materials are underlaid by the characteristic rotten limestone, which is seen in the banks and bed of Suwannee River from the swamp,

where it heads, to its mouth in the Gulf of Mexico. Along the gulf shore towards St. Mark's the limestone is not more than 5 to 15 feet below the surface of the ground.

According to Lieut. Smith the sand is mixed with sufficient clay to render it water-tight when puddled.

The clay is firm, tough, and impervious to water.

The rotten limestone is said to be easily excavated when first uncovered, and to harden by exposure to the air. Its thickness is unknown. It probably rests upon (if it is not formed from) the coral beds which underlie a great portion of the peninsula. Its impermeability and fitness to form the bottom and slopes of a canal are, to say the least, doubtful. The reports refer to it as porous and easily permeable to water. The water absorbed by the soil appears to pass off in great part above the limestone, yet the smaller rivers not unfrequently sink in it and flow through subterranean passages.

Probably the structure is homogeneous and impermeable, with occasional faults, which, when encountered, will require to be treated according to the circumstances.

Its compactness and fitness, when properly protected, to serve as a foundation for heavy structures, is not considered doubtful.

In the project submitted excavations are estimated as being in sand and clay, covered with vegetable soil, materials which can be easily and cheaply moved by machines, underlaid on the west side by the rotten limestone. The cost of excavating the last-named material is not known with accuracy. It is said to be very soft when first exposed, and most of the specimens examined are those of a material not hard to move. If it should prove to be more difficult, the slopes of the cuttings can be made much steeper, and the quantity of work thereby largely diminished. For this reason the price applied, of 30 cents per cubic yard, is deemed sufficient.

Embankments of the canal will be 20 feet wide on top, with slopes of 1 upon 2. They must be very carefully connected with the solid ground, and constructed of selected materials. The price applied is in addition to the cost of excavating the material. As embankments may be considered a source of danger, the line has been maintained chiefly in excavation, whereby the quality of material to be moved and the cost of the work are considerably larger than if the cuttings and fillings, at some risk to the safety of the work, had been more nearly balanced.

The embankments of the reservoir in Okefinokee Swamp are about 12 feet wide on top, with slopes of 1 on 2.

The foundations of locks and other masonry structures on the western side will be upon the rotten limestone, covered and closed by a layer of concrete 3 feet in thickness. Upon the eastern side they will rest upon clay. The floor of the locks will here be an inverted arch of concrete, 4 feet thick in the center, with a versed sine of 6 feet. Under the gate chamber the level bed of concrete will be 10 feet thick.

The lock descending to St. Mary's River, near Camp Pinckney, will probably have to be built on piles, and is so estimated. Over and between the heads of the piles will be a bed of concrete 6 feet thick.

Masonry structures will be built of concrete, the materials for which can be cheaply obtained, cut stone being estimated only for the hollow quoins and miter-sills of locks.

Timber, where used in the coping of overfalls in cribs not under water, etc., should be creosoted to prolong its life.

The lock gates are estimated to be of iron, to be operated by hand. When the business of the canal becomes sufficiently active to justify

the cost, the time of passing a lock may be largely diminished by the use of the machinery.

As the second lock is provided chiefly with a view to prevent the necessity of suspending navigation during repairs, it may be found desirable to use but one under ordinary circumstances, keeping the other closed. By this method the leakage through one set of gates may be entirely prevented, and the gates may be built of creosoted timber, saving in first cost on the fifteen locks about $125,000 to $150,000.

Estimates amounting to $831,350 were made for lining the bottom and sides of the canal, so far as it lay in the rotten limestone, with a water-tight material to prevent losses by filtration. The discussion of the subject indicates the doubtful propriety of this plan, as it is probable the canal will receive supplies from this source equal to its losses during the larger portion of the year.

Two railroad bridges and ten highway bridges will be needed across the canal. They are all estimated to be made of iron resting on piers of masonry, and arranged to turn on a central pier, so placed as to leave a clear opening in the middle of the channel 65 feet in width.

ALTERNATIVE PROJECT, USING SUWANNEE AS A RESERVOIR.

The distance from Blounts Ferry to Billys Lake is about 27 miles, say 145,560 feet. The river's bottom is about 84 feet above tide. The width of the valley is not known. An inspection of the maps would indicate that at the level of 114 feet, the width would average 2,000 feet.

	Cubic feet.
The contents would probably aggregate	4,276,800,000
The reservoir being in the river bed, the lowest ground, there would probably be little or no loss from filtration, but, say, 30 inches over the mean area of the lake for evaporation and filtration	356,400,000
	3,920,400,000

Or per second, for 90 days	504
Add the daily discharge of Suwannee	614
	1,118
To which we may add from reservoir No. 1, in Okefinokee Swamp	126
Giving a total supply of	1,244

The entire maximum demand was estimated 1,244·5 cubic feet. But if we consider that for a portion of the three months estimated the daily flow of the Suwannee will considerably exceed 614 cubic feet per second, it will be seen that perhaps neither of the swamp reservoirs will be required.

To form this Suwannee reservoir we must construct another dam 30 feet high on the upper side of the canal and provide it with regulating weirs to prevent too great fluctuations of its surface level, discharging sluices for feeding the canal, and a lock through which a dredge may enter the lake to remove deposit which would reduce its capacity. This will permit so much of the water to be used as is above the level of canal surface. To raise to that level the remainder, or so much of it as may be needed, the lift being low, and the necessary machinery being required for use only a short time in each year, large centrifugal pumps are proposed, worked by direct acting steam engines of the simplest construction.

SUMMARY OF ESTIMATES ON FOREGOING PROJECT.

1. Excavations and embankments, canal prism, etc		$24,571,468
2. Reservoirs in Okefinokee Swamp	$1,007,008	
(2a) Feeders to same, complete	328,310	
		1,335,318
3. Locks and lock-gates		6,976,649
4. Crossing Suwannee River		171,675
5. Crossing Alapaha, Withlacoochee, and other streams		179,320
6. Two railway bridges	$38,520	
7. Ten highway bridges	151,880	
		190,400
8. Land damage		1,088,000
9. Harbor on Gulf coast		4,759,917
10. Improvement of St. Marys River		2,000,000
11. Improving entrance to Cumberland Sound and mouth of St. Marys River		2,071,000
Total		43,343,747
Add 16 per cent, superintendence and contingencies		6,934,999
Total estimated cost		50,278,746

SUMMARY OF ESTIMATE ON PLAN WITH RESERVOIR ON SUWANNEE RIVER.

Total as before	$43,343,747	
Less north reservoir in Okefinokee Swamp, with its drains and feeder	878,496	
		$42,465,251
Add estimate for Suwannee reservoir and pumping station as above		944,991
		43,410,242
Add 16 per cent, superintendence and contingencies		6,945,638
		50,355,880

In preparing the foregoing report, I take pleasure in acknowledging the valuable aid rendered by Mr. John L. Suess, assistant engineer in my office, and also by Mr. William R. Hutton, civil engineer, of Baltimore, whose services were temporarily secured for the purpose.

The following papers are hereunto appended, viz:

1. Report of Assistant Engineer S. L. Fremont, including a project and estimates of cost of a Florida ship canal.
2. The map accompanying Mr. Fremont's report, giving the results of his survey and showing in a heavy black line the route suggested by him for the canal. The shorter route of the modified project, where it departs from Mr. Fremont's line, is shown on the same map by a heavy broken line.
3. Estimates of cost of the modified project, and of operating and maintaining the canal.

Respectfully submitted.

Q. A. GILLMORE,
Lieut. Col. of Engineers,
Bvt. Maj. Gen., U. S. A.

Brig. Gen. H. G. WRIGHT,
Chief of Engineers, U. S. A.

REPORT OF MR. S. L. FREMONT, ASSISTANT ENGINEER.

UNITED STATES ENGINEER OFFICE,
Savannah, Ga., December 24, 1879.

GENERAL: The field work of the survey and examination of the peninsula of Florida, with a view to the construction of a ship canal from the St. Marys River to the Gulf of Mexico, has been completed to the extent of the means placed at my disposal, and I submit herewith the maps, profiles, and field notes of the work that has been accomplished.

detailed information in reference to the several lines that have been run and aminations made, I invite your attention to the information contained in my inary report dated June 30, 1879.

n I was directed to take charge of the work, I was informed that there was ble for its further prosecution the sum of $3,650, as nearly as could then be ained. Subsequently, outstanding claims were allowed and paid, amounting e than $300, reducing the available balance of the appropriation remaining d when I became responsible for the expenditures to a sum less than $3,350. $7,500 originally allotted to this work, but a little more than two-fifths of m has been at my control for the surveys and examinations that have been nder my direction.

withstanding the limited means remaining, a large amount of fieldwork has ccomplished, with what measure of success you will be able readily to under- and rightly to appreciate.

INSTRUCTIONS.

general instructions sent for my guidance are contained in the copies of two addressed to Mr. Charles Mahon, and dated respectively October 23 and Decem- 1878, upon which I was authorized to "put a liberal construction." (They pended to this report, marked A, B.) I make a brief synopsis of the most ial portions of them:

Determine by careful leveling the most elevated points of the proposed canal low tide-water at St. Marys or Fernandina."

Use the line of railway by leveling along it, as a kind of base of operations, west as Ellaville."

The means on hand will not, most likely, permit the extension of the line of to the Gulf of Mexico, but it is desirable to ascertain the elevation of the nee River at the railroad crossing; and also, if practicable, in the vicinity of s Ferry. But even this may be omitted if the execution of works of greater tance mentioned below shall demand it."

Numerous benchmarks must be well established for future reference."

Will the Okefinokee Swamp supply a sufficient basin for a summit level?"

Find the elevation of the summit level, and mark it well."

Find depressions best suited for storage reservoirs."

Obtain the area of the swamp."

Run a complete line of levels around the swamp, with numerous offsets into

"Ascertain the best method of draining the swamp to supply a summit level."

"Ascertain the character of the bottom by borings."

"Learn the condition of the swamp after long-continued rainfalls, and also ong-continued dry weather."

foregoing contains a synopsis of some of the many well-drawn and pertinent ctions that were transmitted for my guidance and direction. But considering llowing as the most essential and necessary of them all, I have given especial ion to the investigations therein required, and am confident the information ed is reliable and trustworthy:

e prime object of this preliminary survey being to settle conclusively if possi- at least with a tolerable degree of certainty, the question of the capacity and ability of Okefinokee Swamp for the purpose of feeding a long reach of summit or a ship canal, every effort must be made to that end, neglecting, if necessary, portions of the fieldwork herein described as do not bear directly on the ques- f water supply."

INFORMATION THAT HAS BEEN OBTAINED.

line that was run from Sanderson around the swamp and back to Lake City in ction with the lines from the shoals of the Suwannee River to Old Fort Moniac, om that point around the southern margin of the swamp to Blounts Ferry, have l to develop, by means of the measured distances and compass bearings, its al contour and dimensions, while the numerous elevations that were taken both and outside of the swamp have determined its geographical adaptability to as an important section of a long reach of summit level of a ship canal.

LOCATION, DIRECTION, AND LENGTH OF THE CANAL.

canal should have its eastern terminus on the St. Marys River, at the place n as "Camp Pinckney," 29 miles—measured by the river line as it will be when ved—above the town of St. Marys, at the head of ship navigation. From

thence it will run in a right line south 68° west to and through the Okefinokee Swamp, crossing the Suwannee River near Blounts Ferry; thence to Ellaville, 77 miles.

From near Ellaville the direction of the line changes slightly, bearing south 76° 15′ west—64 miles to St. Marks, on the Gulf of Mexico. The whole distance from the town of St. Marys to St. Marks, connecting the waters of Cumberland Sound with the Gulf of Mexico, by this route, is 170 miles.

SUMMIT LEVEL.

This level of the canal should commence at a point about 5½ miles west of Camp Pinckney and 6 miles from the Okefinokee Swamp. It will cross the swamp, a distance of 22 miles, and across its western margin, a distance of 14 miles, to the Suwannee River. Crossing this stream it will continue 18 miles farther to a point near a second crossing of the Suwannee, where this level will terminate, making the reach 60 miles in length.

At the first crossing of the Suwannee River its bed has been found to be 4 feet below the bottom of the level, and the water surface of the river is here given at 88·5 feet above the datum plane.

The project for carrying the canal across the river at this point must include the best method for absorbing as much of its water as may be desired to feed this level.

As this river has an average descent, or fall, of about 1 foot to the mile, from Mixons Ferry, near Billys Lake, where the elevation of the water surface is 107·5 feet, to the point of this crossing, where the water surface is 88·5 feet, the difference of level being 19 feet and the water surface being 4·5 feet above the bed of the canal, a dam here would raise the water sufficiently to feed this level without backing it much beyond Mixons; hence the Suwannee River is available for supplying a large quantity of feed-water to the summit level.

OTHER LEVELS.

The second crossing of the Suwannee will be made about 7 miles east of Ellaville, where the summit level terminates, and near where two lift locks, with lifts of 18 feet each, will be required. This will bring the second level from the summit to a plane 48 feet above the reference. This level will be fed by the Suwannee, Alapaha, and Withlacoochee rivers and San Pedro Bay, and will be continued to near the Enconfeenee River, about 30 miles west of Ellaville, where a third lock will be located. The waters of the Enconfeenee may be made to feed this third level, which will be continued 6 miles to the fourth lock, near the second crossing of the Enconfeenee River. From this point to the Ocilla River the distance by this fourth level is about 9 miles, where the fifth lock will be placed and that river be made to feed the fifth level.

From the Ocella River the distance by that level to the sixth and last lock is about 10 miles. At this point the canal connects with the St. Marks River, which must be dredged out to a depth of 24 feet below the low-water line in that river.

From the eastern terminus of the summit level there will be required five 21-feet lift locks to descend to the plane of low tide-water on the St. Marys River.

ESTIMATED COST OF THE WORK.

I am, of course, not in possession of the data that would be necessary to make a full, detailed, and complete estimate of the cost of constructing a ship canal from the St. Marys River to the Gulf of Mexico, as this is only intended to be a preliminary survey. I therefore submit the following approximate estimate of the cost of the work:

THE GRADING.

This canal should have the capacity for carrying vessels with a draft of 22 feet and a length of 325 feet. This will require the canal to be 24 feet deep, a bottom width of 240 feet, with side slopes of 1 on 1½.

This will give a cross section of 736 square yards, and 1,295,360 cubic yards to the mile where the surface of the country is in the same plane with the upper line of the canal.

The summit level will require an average excavation of about 35 feet in depth to reach the bottom plane of the canal. This will give the cross section to be excavated an area of 1,137·5 square yards, and 1 mile will require the removal of 2,002,000 cubic yards of material, and the whole reach of 60 miles 120,120,000 cubic yards.

For the 81 miles remaining, the cross section will have an area of 736 square yards; 1 mile will require the removal of 1,295,360 cubic yards and 81 miles will give 104,924,160 cubic yards. The aggregate of material to be removed will be 225,044,160 cubic yards, which, at 20 cents per yard, makes the cost $45,008,832. To this add 20 per cent for contingent expenses, and it gives $54,010,598 as the cost of removing material of all kinds, grubbing and cleaning, land damages and constructing a complete canal with necessary fixtures of all kinds (lift and guard locks excepted), such as feed locks, waste weirs, reservoir gates, and grading sites for the lift and guard locks, and for draining the swamps, such as excavating for storage reservoirs, feed and drainage canals, and ditches for collecting and storing water for operating during the dry season (July, August, and September). It is believed that the grading can be done, as above estimated for, at 20 cents per cubic yard by the use of steam-power, with all the modern appliances for such work, and that the item for contingencies will cover all extraordinary expenditures that can not be enumerated in detail.

DESCRIPTION OF AND ESTIMATE FOR LOCKS.

There will be required for the service of this canal, as I have shown above, eleven lift-locks and two guard-locks. There will be five lift-locks with each a lift of 21 feet to ascend from the St. Mary's River to the summit level. There will be one guard-gate at the St. Mary's and one at the St. Mark's where the waters of the termini of the canal respectively debouch into those rivers.

There will be required for the gulf end of the canal six lock, of 18 feet lift each, to overcome the difference of level.

The lift and guard locks will each be 350 feet in length.

COST OF THE LOCKS—ESTIMATE FOR GUARD AND LIFT LOCKS—ONE OF EACH CLASS.

Estimated cost of a guard lock of the following dimensions: Length, 350 feet; width, 80 feet; lock walls, 24 feet high, 20 feet thick at base, and 4 feet thick at top, each 100 feet long. Four such walls will constitute the lock walls, with dry stone walls revetting the spaces between the side walls of the lock. The latter will each be 150 feet in length, or 300 feet for both sides, built up on a slope of 1 on ½; slant height 27 feet, and average thickness 2 feet.

The foundation will generally be of piles covered with a grillage of 12-inch by 12-inch square pine timber, and floored with 12-inch by 12-inch square pine timber, on which a rubber foundation 4 feet thick will be placed, and covered with a 1-foot thickness of stone paving. There will be a cut-stone coping of 5 feet in width and 1 foot in thickness covering the walls, and projecting 6 inches on each side of their entire lengths and ends.

Quantity of ashlar masonry required for facing, paving, and coping, 1,434 cubic yards, at $25	$35,850.00	
Quantity of rubble required for backing and foundation, 7,230 cubic yards, at $10	72,300.00	
Quantity of dry stone wall for revetting space between side walls, 600 cubic yards, at $6	3,600.00	
Total cost of masonry for guard lock		$111,750.00
Number of foundation piles driven, 2,652, at $2 each	5,304.00	
For foundation timber, 93,600 feet, 12-inch by 12-inch grillage, at $12 per thousand	1,123.20	
For flooring timber, 12-inch by 12-inch, 286,416 feet, at $12 per thousand	3,436.99	
Total cost of timber foundation		9,864.19
For four wrought-iron gates, 24 feet high, weight 120,000 pounds each, or 480,000 pounds, at 5 cents	24,000.00	
For gate fastenings, 40,000 pounds at 5 cents	2,000.00	
Cost of iron gates, etc		26,000.00
Cost of lock		147,614.19
Add 10 per cent for contingencies		14,761.41
Total cost of guard lock		162,375.60

ESTIMATED COST OF AN 18-FOOT LIFT-LOCK, 350 FEET LONG, 80 FEET WIDE, AND 42 FEET DEEP.

The side walls extending from either end 110 feet, the remaining space being sloped in excavation to 1 on ¼, and revetted with a dry wall.

Quantity of ashlar masonry required for this lock, facing, coping, and paving bottom, as in the last lock, 2,218 cubic yards at $25	$55,450.00	
Quantity of rubble, backing, filling, and foundation required, side walls, average thickness 14 feet of rubble, 14,031 cubic yards, at $10	140,310.00	
Quantity of dry wall, 1,532 cubic yards, at $6	9,192.00	
Total cost of masonry		$204,952.00
Number of piles required and driven, 3,108, at $2 each	6,216,00	
Quantity of 12-inch by 12-inch grillage timber put in the work, 55,440 feet, at $12 per thousand	665.28	
Quantity of flooring 12-inch by 12-inch, 335,664 feet, at $12 per thousand	4,027.97	
Total cost of timber foundation		10,909.25
Iron gates required will be 43 feet high, and each lock gate will weigh 210,000 pounds, equal to 840,000 pounds, at 5 cents	42,000.00	
Cost of gate fastenings, 48,000 pounds, at 5 cents	2,400.00	
Cost of iron gates, etc		44,400.00
Cost of lock		260,261.25
Add 10 per cent for contingencies		26,026.12
Total cost of 18-foot lift-lock		286,287.37

ESTIMATED COST OF A LIFT-LOCK OF 21 FEET LIFT, 350 FEET IN LENGTH, 80 FEET IN BREADTH, AND 45 FEET IN DEPTH.

The side walls extending from either end 120 feet, the remaining space being sloped in excavation 1 on ¼, and revetted with a dry wall.

Quantity of ashlar or cut-stone masonry required in this lock is 2,526 cubic yards, at $25	$63,150.00	
Quantity of rubble backing and foundation masonry required, 17,031 cubic yards, at $10	170,310.00	
Quantity of dry wall revetting, 1,630 cubic yards, at $6	9,780.00	
Total cost of masonry		$243,240.00
Quantity of timber for grillage and flooring required, 506,880 feet, at $12, put in the work	6,082.56	
Number of piles required and driven, 3,520, at $2 each	7,040.00	
Total cost of timber foundation		13,122.56
Four gates will be required 45 feet high, and will weigh 225,000 pounds each, and will aggregate 900,000 pounds, at 5 cents	45,000.00	
The fastenings will weigh 15,000 pounds to the gate, or a total of 60,000 pounds, at 5 cents	3,000.00	
Total cost of iron gates, etc		48,000.00
Cost of lock		304,362.56
Contingencies, 10 per cent		30,436.25
Total cost of the lock		334,798.81

TOTAL ESTIMATE FOR LOCKS.

For two guard-locks, each to cost $162,375.60	$324,751.20
For six 18-foot lift-locks, each $286,287.37	1,717,724.22
For five 21-foot lift-locks, each to cost $334,798 81	1,673,994.05
Total cost of locks	3,716.469.47

Included in contingent expenses for guard-gates, with fixtures and fastenings in *front of last locks at* either terminus of the canal, $20,000 each, or for both $40,000.

PROBABLE WATER SUPPLY—AREA OF THE SWAMPS AND THEIR WATER-SHEDS.

The area of the Okefinokee Swamp is more than 600 square miles—the great watershed with its numerous streams and branches stretching away to the north and northwest—containing an area of more than 400 square miles of surface; to the south lie the two large ("Gum" and "Bay") swamps with an area of over 200 square miles, and with an elevation of full 10 feet above the surface of the southern portion of the Okefinokee. Thus the aggregate of the swamp and its watersheds cover more than 1,200 square miles of surface, and it is a well-known fact that the annual rainfall in that section of the country greatly exceeds that of any similar area on the seaboard abreast of it. Hence we cannot be greatly in error in assuming the recorded amount of rainfall at St. Mary's as a certain and safe guide in determining the annual volume of water that may be collected in the Okefinokee Swamp.

Take the area of the surface of the swamps and their watersheds at 1,200 square miles, and the annual rainfall, as ascertained at St. Marys, at 54 inches. We find 5,575,680,740 cubic yards of water as the annual volume of rainfall upon this surface.

Allow two-thirds of this to be lost by evaporation and filtration, and we have remaining 1,858,560,247 cubic yards for the annual working of the canal—collectible. The quantity of water required for the annual supply of the summit level, as will be shown further on in this report, is 2,241,490,944 cubic yards. This shows a deficiency of 382,930,697 cubic yards in the volume of water required for the annual operation of the summit level; we must therefore draw from the Suwannee River.

The eastern levels must be supplied from the summit, but those west of the summit may have a supply of feed-water if necessary from other sources along the line of canal.

The Suwannee River was gauged at several places above the shoals and also near Mixons Ferry, and from the mean results of these observations the following results were obtained:

The number of cubic feet of water discharged by the river per second, at the canal crossing of this river, is 2,163; the number of cubic feet of water per day of 24 hours is 186,883,200; the number of cubic feet per year of 365 days is 68,212,368,000, or, in cubic yards, 2,526,384,000, to supply any deficiency in water that the Okefinokee Swamp may fail to furnish.

The gauging of the river was done during the ordinary stage of winter water, though the calculations were made for a medium stage of the river; yet for safety I have made the following liberal allowance for any excess or overestimate. Take one-fourth of the daily supply for that obtainable during the lowest stage of summer water, and it gives 46,720,800 cubic feet as the least daily summer supply—a quantity sufficient to pass nearly thirty-five vessels a day from this source alone. From this it might be reasonably assumed that there would be no deficiency of water. As the question, however, is susceptible of further proof, I propose to introduce it here. Take the available quantity of water that can be supplied by the Okefinokee and its watershed at 1,858,560,247 cubic yards, after allowing two-thirds of the annual rainfall to be lost by evaporation and filtration in collecting it. To this add one-half of the volume of water that can be supplied by the Suwannee River, by means of a dam at the first crossing of that stream, and we have from the river 1,263,192,000 cubic yards, and a total supply per annum from both sources (swamp and river) of 3,121,752,247 cubic yards of water with which to operate the canal, and which we shall see is amply sufficient. We will now look into the question of expenditure of water.

CONSIDERATION OF THE WATER EXPENDITURE.

After consulting numerous authorities upon the subject of water expenditure (in operating canals) by evaporation, filtration, leakage of locks, and loss from repairs—all questions of great importance to be determined in supplying water for operating a canal—to which I will add the question of infiltration or seepage into the canal, likewise of much importance, I have been able to obtain but little data considered entirely reliable for even a barge canal, and as applicable to a ship canal none at all. The question, so far as my information extends, has been considered only in its relation to small canals of no greater capacity than 80 feet in width and 10 feet in depth, with lift locks of less than 9 feet, and from that size down to 3 feet depth of water with lifts of the same height. I am therefore left to judge how far the discussion of the subject, as applied to small canals, will guide me in arriving at correct or approximately correct results for this ship canal. All agree that the greater the depth of water the less will be the amount of evaporation and filtration. The colder the climate and more humid the atmosphere the less will be the amount of evaporation.

Of the American engineers who have discussed the subject, Col. Abert has treated it at the greatest length, and has furnished the most valuable information, but his data are mostly applicable to northern climates and small canals. The results he

obtained in Maryland are of but little value in determining the question presented for my consideration in Florida.

The question of the humidity, heat, and dryness of the climate, as affecting the amount of evaporation, must be examined from the standpoint of the locality where the canal is to be excavated. After much consideration of the subject, with all the light that I have been able to bring to my aid, I am fully satisfied with looking at results near home. I have therefore assumed the data that are applicable as furnished by Lieut. M. L. Smith in his studies upon this subject, as contained in your able and exhaustive report upon the subject of a canal across the peninsula by a route nearly coincident with this one. dated 30th of December, 1876.

Using these data, I have constructed the following table of expenditures for the summit level:

We will assume the maximum number of vessels of large tonnage that can pass this canal daily each way to be thirty-six, one every half hour for eighteen working hours, per day. This will require an expenditure of seventy-two double lockfuls a day for three hundred days—49,777·7 cubic yards being the quantity of water required to pass each vessel through the summit level. We have the amount of water in prisms of the summit level required to operate the canal for one year.

VOLUME OF WATER EXPENDED.

	Prisms.
Loss from evaporation	1
Loss from absorption and filtration	10
Loss from leakage of lock gates	2
Used for lockage, operating canal	13·84
Loss by repairs, etc	2
Total number of prisms per annum	28·84

The volume of the prism of the summit level is 77,721,600 cubic yards, which gives a total of 2,241,490,944 as the annual expenditure of water. We have seen that the quantity of water that may be collected from the swamps and river gives us an available supply after deducting largely for evaporation, filtration, and leakage, of 3,121,752,247 cubic yards.

From this take the quantity of water required for the annual service of the summit level, 22,241,490,944 cubic yards, and we have a surplus of 880,261,303 cubic yards. From this calculation it seems there will be a surplus of water to feed the summit level. From this surplus we may collect and hold in storage reservoirs a sufficient amount to operate the canal during the three months of least rainfall. This will require 560,372,736 cubic yards, but we have more than eleven prisms of surplus water from which to draw.

I therefore assume that it has been abundantly proven that there is a sufficient volume of water collectible along the line of the summit level to operate the largest ship canal that the commerce of the country is likely to demand in many years to come. I have reason to believe that a much greater surplus of water than has been here shown will be found to exist. Should this canal or any similar one be excavated along or near this line, infiltration alone will be found to be a very important factor in the water supply.

DRAINING THE SWAMP FOR COLLECTING WATER.

I have laid down on the map several lines in blue ink, showing the location proposed for the largest class of lateral draining canals for the purpose of collecting the water into storage reservoirs along the line of the canal for its supply. These are the main arteries, which, with a suitable number of side drains, will make a complete system of drainage for the swamps, Okefinokee and the two south of it.

THE GRADE OF THE DRAINING CANALS.

The water surface in the Okefinokee Swamp varies in its rate of dip or depression from 5 to 10 inches to the mile.

North of a line drawn east and west a little south of Billys Island the rate of ascent to the northern margin of the swamp is not more than 4 to 6 inches to the mile; south of that line the descent to the southern margin is from 6 to 8 inches to the mile.

The dip of Gum and Bay swamps to the Okefinokee is from 6 to 12 inches to the mile. The grades to be given to the drains must therefore be about the same toward the reservoirs that the depression will admit. The direction will also measurably be determined by the same state of surface depression. It will be observed that the fall of the several draining canals is very slight; similar, in this particular, to the

natural water courses of the country. They will bear less sediment into the reservoirs as a consequence, and the abrasion of the banks will be less.

The annexed table of the cross sections and quantities of excavation for drainage canals is given for information.

Table of canals and smaller drains for the drainage of Okefinokee Swamp.

Canals.	Cubic yards.	Cost.
Length and cross-sections.		
20 miles, 5×6 feet	117,333	$17,599.95
80 miles, 5×4 feet	312,888	46,933.20
*55 miles, 8×10 feet	860,444	129,066.60
*25 miles, 6×7 feet	205,333	30,799.95
30 miles, 3×4 feet	70,400	10,560.00
210 miles	1,566,398	234,959.70

*NOTE.—Fifty-five miles of 8 feet by 10 feet and 25 miles of 6 feet by 7 feet canals are shown on map of survey drawn in *blue ink*.

INFILTRATION OR SEEPAGE.

I use these terms to indicate the reception of the water into the canal through a porous soil saturated with water, as is often met with in Florida. From considerable investigation upon the subject, I find that along the route of this canal it is almost everywhere found to be the rule that the water lies near the surface for a large portion of the year, and in the rainy season it is very common for the wells, excavated for the supply of water for domestic purposes, to overflow, and generally the surface of the water maintains its level for a short distance from the surface of the ground, though constantly and largely drawn from. A somewhat remarkable case was related to me by the general superintendent of the Atlantic and Gulf Railroad of a pump attached to a 2-inch iron pipe, driven some 10 or 15 feet into the ground, to supply a water station at or near Live Oak, Fla. Finding the supply could not be exhausted by manual force, a steam engine was attached to the pump, and after trials extending through several days and nights continuously, there was no perceptible diminution of the supply of water. I am informed that similar cases have occurred in other portions of the State near our line. While these facts do not furnish reliable data upon which to erect a theory that any considerable supply of water may be obtained by infiltration, they nevertheless furnish some evidence that the water would remain in the canal at a certain level without any foreign supply. I am aware that it may be said on the other hand that for the same reason filtration or the outflow would follow if the water should be reduced during the dry season, the level maintained depending on the rainfall. I accept this theory, and think it highly probable. From the experiments made by Lieut. John Pickett, and given in your report, I think we may safely infer, at least, that material assistance will be obtained from infiltration, not only along the line of the summit level, but throughout the line of the canal.

STORAGE RESERVOIRS.

I propose to construct one feed reservoir along the line of the summit level in two sections; one on either side of the canal, 10 miles in length, 15 feet in depth, and 600 feet each in width. Dikes, to be raised around the margin and well puddled so as to hold water, will be required, as it is probable the water will be raised 1 or 2 feet above the natural surface, by reason of the superior height of the surface reservoirs or basins. I propose, in addition to this large feed reservoir, to collect storage water in basins in the northwestern and southern portions of the swamp. These basins, or natural reservoirs, will be formed without any excavation except for the material to be used in constructing dikes where the margins of the swamp are too low. Tumbling dams will be required at the outlet of Billys Lake, and near Ellicotts Mound, where the outflow from the swamp in season of high water would be considerable, and where ordinary dikes would be washed away. There may be other places on the western side where the creeks that flow from the swamp into the Suwanee will make it necessary to have "overflow dams" for the surplus water. The aggregate length of dikes to inclose the portions of the swamp to be used for basins of storage water will be about 10 miles. These dikes will average a height of 6 feet, a width of 4 feet across the top, and have a slope of 1 on 1, or a cross-

section of 60 square feet. There will be, it is believed, about 5,000 linear feet of tumbling dams, to cost $10 a foot, equal to $50,000.

The amount of diking required will measure 11,733 cubic yards per mile, and it may be thrown up for 10 cents per cubic yard, say $1,173.30 per mile, or $11,733.00 for the whole distance of 10 miles will cover the cost.

In addition to these dikes, canals to connect the basins with the feed reservoirs located along the summit level will be required, two or more to each basin, with feed gates to hold the water back if necessary during the heavy rainfalls.

GREAT STORAGE RESERVOIRS.

The great reservoirs for the collection of water, as described in the previous pages, should consist, as stated, of two basins; one north and the other south of the canal. The embankment from the excavations of the canal will make that division necessary. The most northerly one will include the waters of Billys Lake and connecting pools and its waters, or a portion of them may reach the summit level through the Suwanee River by a feed gate connected with the tumbling dam, at Mixon's, while the lower portions may more conviently reach the feed reserviors by canals with feed gates. This basin will cover about 151 square miles with an average depth of 5 feet.

The other one, south of the canal, will cover 420 square miles, and will have an average depth of from 5 to 6 feet, and will supply the feed reservoir on that side by canals with feed gates.

The great feed reservoirs will be excavated along each side of the canal as stated—10 miles in length, 200 yards in breadth, and 5 yards in depth. Basin No. 1, north of the canal, 10 by 15 miles, will hold a volume of water of 774,400,000 cubic yards.

No. 2, south of the canal, 10 by 12 miles in extent, will hold a volume of water of 619,520,000 cubic yards.

The feed reservoirs lying along the summit level will hold 35,200,000 cubic yards of water. Aggregate capacity of reservoirs and basins will be 1,429,120,000 cubic yards.

I have located the feed reservoirs alongside the canal, with simply an embankment on the natural ground on which the excavation will be made—this embankment to be made impervious to water. I regard this as the best, if not the only practical, method of holding the storage water for use during the dry season. The upper water surface of the canal will be more than 10 feet below the natural surface of the ground, and that the canal may serve as a reservoir to retain the extra supply of water used in operating, would require a guard lock at each margin of the swamp east and west.

As the embankments formed by the excavated earth from the canal in conjunction with the dikes would make a convenient and inexpensive inclosure for the surface water constituting the basins, I have not hesitated to recommend this plan in preference to any other that has presented itself to me.

The dikes along a portion of Bay Swamp to include the backing up of the water flowing out of this swamp into the Suwanee River, and conveying it by a drainage canal into the Okefinokee Swamp, should be considered an important part of this project.

I submit the foregoing views and estimates in relation to a *water supply, drainage and storage*, together with the estimated water expenditure, for your consideration, with a full belief that supply is ample and abundant.

IMPROVEMENT OF THE ST. MARYS RIVER BY STRAIGHTENING, DREDGING, AND CONSTRUCTION OF WING DAMS.

Estimate for improving the St. Marys River between Cumberland Sound and Camp Pinckney.

There will be required for the proper deepening and straightening of this river about 6 miles of canaling, or cutting off bends and removing shoals by dredging channels, with an average width of 276 feet to a depth of 24 feet. This will require the removal of 7,762,160 cubic yards of material, that will cost, it is believed, not exceeding 10 cents per cubic yard, or $776,216.

There will be required 21,120 feet of wing dams of an average height of 10 feet, and will cost about $10 per linear foot, or $211,200.

Total estimate	$987,416.00
Add 10 per cent for contingencies	98,741.60
Total cost of improvements	1,086,157.60

IMPROVEMENT OF THE HARBOR OF ST. MARKS, FLA.

In order to obtain a channel 24 feet deep at mean low water, and 300 feet wide, it proposed to open by dredging a channel following the general direction of the resent ship channel.

From the data at hand it is computed that this dredging will extend over a distance f 13¼ miles, 7 of which will be entirely outside of land, and require the removal of ,851,331 cubic yards of material. This material is supposed to be sand and mud, but here may be an underlying stratum of limestone. At 15 cents per cubic yard, this rould cost (adding 10per cent for contingencies) $1,460,469.61. To maintain this hannel, it is proposed to construct low training walls of brush, stone, and logsons ach side of the same from the confluence of the St. Marks and Wakulla rivers to it ntrance to the gulf. A height of 5 and width of 20 feet is supposed to be sufficient. 'wenty-six and a half miles of this, at $10 a linear foot, will cost (adding 10 per ent for contingencies) $1,539,120. Total cost of improvement of St. Marks larbor will therefore be $2,999,589.61.

CONSOLIDATED ESTIMATE OF COST OF THE ENTIRE WORK.

For grading canal and collecting storage water	$54,010,598.00
Cost of all the locks	3,716,469.47
Cost of improving St. Marys River	1,086,157.60
Cost of improving St. Marks Harbor	2,999,589.61
Aggregate cost of canal	61,812,814.68

THE SATILLA RIVER AS THE OUTLET OF THE SHIP CANAL PROPOSED—A BRIEF DESCRIPTION.

The ship channel of the Satilla River, as given on Coast Survey Chart No. 57, from St. Andrews Sound to the bulkhead on Floyds Shoals, 5 miles above the sound, shows from 12 to 26 feet, while on the shoals only 8 feet. From the shoals for a distance of 35 miles above to Baileys Mill there are four shoals of 12 feet each; the balance of the channel will average 19 feet. From Baileys Mill, 5 miles above, there are one or more shoals of 8 feet. Here, 45 miles from the sound, may properly be called the head of ocean navigation, where vessels with favorable tides can load to 14 feet. Above this point the river begins to shoal faster. Gorman's Bluff is 10 miles above, or 55 miles from the sound.

ST. MARYS RIVER AS THE OUTLET OF THE CANAL.

The ship channel of the St. Marys River, as given on the same chart, from Cumberland Sound to 3¼ miles above the town of St. Marys, and 8¼ miles from the sound, shows two soundings of 16 feet each, and four soundings of 42 feet; making the average depth of the channel 29 feet.

At Temples, 42 miles from the sound, there is a shoal of 12 feet. At Kings Ferry, 45 miles from the sound, is a shoal of 12 feet. At Orange Bluff, 48 miles from the sound, is a shoal of 12 feet. At Colerain, 54 miles from the sound, is a shoal of 11 feet. To this point, with favorable tides, vessels can go drawing 18 feet of water. The average depth of the channel from 3¼ miles from St. Marys is 24 feet.

From Colerain to Camp Pinckney, 8 miles, there are two shoals of 8 and 10 feet, and the average depth of the river is 21 feet. Camp Pinckney, 60 miles from Cumberland Sound, is called the head of ocean navigation, and vessels with favorable tides can carry 14 feet to this point.

All the depths given for both rivers are given as soundings at mean low water. The distance to be improved on the St. Marys River for a ship canal of 24 feet depth at low water would not exceed 6 miles. On the Satilla it would probably be three or four times greater. The greater depth of the St. Marys, as compared with the Satilla, is due apparently to its smaller width.

CHARACTER OF THE LANDS BORDERING THE OKEFINOKEE, GUM, AND BAY SWAMPS—ALSO A BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE COUNTRY TRAVERSED BY THE SURVEYING PARTIES.

Leaving Sanderson, the lands are low and wet, covered with bays and ponds, with open pine woods, a large growth of pine timber suitable for building purposes. There is no undergrowth to be met with except about the water courses and in the

bays. This is the character of the country to Ellicotts Mound and 6 or 7 miles farther north, after which the country rises.

Lands are sandy and poor for agricultural purposes generally, though with proper attention they are capable of a certain degree of improvement. From about 6 miles north of Ellicotts Mound the country rises very considerably, and is still covered with large pine trees; soil very sandy and white. The timber bordering the swamp is pine, cypress, and bay.

The eastern rim of the swamp is much higher than any other portion, and dips both towards the swamp and the St. Marys River. This margin is from 4 to 11 miles in width between the swamp and river, being about 11 miles wide near the south end of the swamp, and only 4 miles at "Stanley Branch." At Traders Hill this distance is about 6 miles.

North from Traders Hill the country presents a similar aspect to that already described—open piney woods and light, sandy soil, cypress, and bay bordering the swamp. This character of country continues around to the northwestern margin of the swamp, where the sandy soil measurably disappears, being succeeded by a black soil far more productive.

Following down the western margin, the soil continues good, but becomes more sandy after passing Blounts Ferry. From Mixons Ferry the country is low and wet, the surface being covered with the saw palmetto and a small growth of scattering pine trees. The saw palmetto is found everywhere along the entire route, and on account of its firm, extending roots tends to give more or less stability to the soil.

The lands bordering the Suwannee are regarded generally as fertile, though light and sandy. They produce good crops of sea-island cotton and corn when properly cultivated and improved.

Passing to the westward of the Suwannee, we continue to find the surface of the entire country interspersed with the inevitable ponds and lakes. The pine timber is larger in many places than it is along the eastern border of the swamp, showing that the soil has greater strength and fertility, the clay subsoil giving it strength and durability when well cultivated. In the depressions where the hummocks are found the soil is black and of great fertility. The lands on the banks of the river, as a general rule, are rich and productive, unless where the shores terminate in "bluffs," which are of a light and sandy character. Much of the country along the gulf coast is low and marshy far back into the interior. The soil generally on the St. Marks line seems to be underlaid by the characteristic rotten limestone of Florida. The wells can only be excavated to a depth of from 4 to 15 feet before this formation is reached. This is the character of the soil generally in La Fayette, Taylor, Wakulla, and the lower portion of Jefferson counties. The pines here are larger than in eastern Florida, and are more abundant generally than near the Atlantic coast.

The soil, too, is generally more fertile, and for the growth of fruit and vines it is especially adapted, owing, perhaps, to the large amount of lime pleasant.

CLIMATE AND HEALTHY CHARACTER OF THE COUNTRY.

There are no difficulties to be encountered of a climatic character in excavating a canal anywhere along the line of our surveys at any season of the year. Our parties were remarkably free from any injurious effects due to climate. Though in the swamp in midsummer, not an instance of sickness was recorded. The Okefinokee and contiguous swamps are among the most healthy portions of the country—far less sickness arising from climatic causes than is to be found in the vicinity of the low lands of Georgia and the Carolinas.

The inhabitants—the "Mixons," the "Lees," and the "Chessers"—all living within the limits of the Okefinokee—are as robust and healthy in appearance as persons from the highlands of Georgia. A physician is scarcely ever heard of in this section of country. I met many others on both the eastern and western borders of the swamp who live within its influence, and they all seem to possess remarkably good health and constitutions. They claim that they have no sickness resulting from miasmatic influences. There would be, I am sure, no difficulties on account of a malarious climate in constructing a canal in all its parts during any season of the year.

CONDITION OF THE OKEFINOKEE SWAMP AFTER LONG-CONTINUED RAINFALLS, AND ALSO AFTER LONG-CONTINUED DRY WEATHER.

From the most reliable information that I have been able to obtain from residents and others accustomed at short intervals to visit the interior, I find the following to be the condition of the swamp.

After long-continued rainfalls the swamp is completed inundated, the water covering the whole surface, except the islands, from 1 to 5 or 6 feet deep. The water at such times overflows into the Suwannee and St. Marys rivers. Near Mixons Ferry and Ellicotts Mound, the overflow is especially abundant. At many other points on the southern and western margins, the overflow by creeks and branches is very great.

During very long-continued dry weather the water disappears entirely from the surface of the swamp except in very low places and in the ponds and pools sometimes called lakes. The outflow of Billys Lake, near Mixons, becomes entirely dry for several weeks, usually every year, and in 1860 it was entirely dry for three months—July, August, and September—as I was informed by Mr. Mixon, who assured me of this fact in January, 1879, when I was at his place. During the dryest time water can be obtained in the swamp by cutting through the moss covering the ground, and digging a few inches, that is excellent for drinking—far better than the water found in the open lakes.

ROTTEN LIMESTONE.

The rotten limestone formation is found near the Suwannee River, and is especially marked from near Blounts Ferry to the shoals. It also crops out in many places along the bed of that stream below Mixons Ferry, and therefore any plan of canaling the river would be both difficult and expensive. The method recommended in this report seems to be the least expensive and most efficient, viz, to raise the water by a dam sufficiently high to take in all or as much of the water as desired into the summit level of the canal.

Place the bottom of the canal sufficiently low to receive all the drainage water from the swamp and contiguous water surfaces, and the water supply is fully assured at all times and at all seasons.

The rotten limestone that appears so formidable a barrier in canal excavation west of the Suwanee may prove to be an obstacle of much less importance than is generally supposed. If this stone proves to be sufficiently soft to be cut readily with a steam shovel, the cost of canaling may be kept below the estimates. Had our boring apparatus been more effective or mechanics skilled in its use been employed, all of this would have been thoroughly tested and the results given in this paper. I regret that some of the leveling had not been sacrificed for the more thorough examination of the ground by boring.

The following are the results of the

BORINGS.

The borings were made under the direction of Mr. Joseph Shepard, collector at St. Marys, to whom I am indebted for much valuable information and assistance, and though they were not carried to as great depths as was desired and expected, in consequence of defects in the apparatus, they all tended to one result, and furnish us with abundant evidence that the basin of the Okefinokee Swamp is capable of being made the bottom of a vast reservoir for the storage of feed water for a ship canal. All the borings showed the same formation, viz, vegetable matter from 1 to 5 feet from the surface, next various qualities of sand; below and terminating in every instance we find a very compact clayey bottom measurably impervious to water.

The rotten limestone formation found west of the Suwanee River is found, in excavating for wells, uniformly soft, so as to be cut easily with a spade and pick. Many of the wells go through this material, and it is believed that the estimated cost of the excavation of the canal will be fully sufficient to accomplish the work.

SAN PEDRO BAY.

This bay, situated south of the railroad and west of the Suwanee River, has features very similar to the Okefinokee Swamp. It was not explored, but from information received it appears to abound in open prairies covered with water and grass, the growth being pine, bay, and cypress. Its dimensions are about 10 miles in breadth east and west to 15 in length north and south. Its water surface has an elevation of about 85 feet, while the rim on the south is 87 feet above tide water. Cultivated spots within 1 mile of the bay have an elevation of from 10 to 12 feet below the surface of its water.

Very little information can be obtained as to the interior of San Pedro, though there is every reason to believe that its rim incloses a large amount of water available for feeding the lower levels of a ship canal. No line was run around this bay,

but the fact of Norton's Mill Creek issuing from it, flowing north across the railroad into the Withlacoochee River, leads to the belief that the surrounding country on all sides is lower than the margin of this swamp; in other words, the country rises on all sides in approaching the water of San Pedro Bay, as it overflows on all sides.

The Fenholloway, Enconfeenee, and Warrior rivers all flow from the bay on the west and northwest, Nortons Mill Creek to the north, and sundry small streams south and east to the Suwanee.

BARGE CANAL—LOCATION, LENGTH, AND PROBABLE COST.

The following location is suggested as the best practicable line for a barge canal, should the public interests require one of less magnitude than this ship canal. Like the latter, the barge canal should have its eastern terminus at Camp Pinckney and run nearly due west (north 87° 30′ west) to Billys Lake. Here the direction changes to south 45° west, and continues to near Ellaville, where the direction again changes to south 70° west. This course is then kept to the Ocilla River, where it is believed to be navigable, making the whole length 132 miles. The summit level will begin about 6 miles west of Camp Pinckney and terminate about 7 miles east of Ellaville, giving a long reach of about 74 miles. This level will have an abundance of feed water from the swamp and Suwanee River. This is thought to be a more economical route, from the fact of its traversing portions of the swamp in which there is the largest accumulation of water, and, further, because the waters of the Suwannee River can be made to feed its summit level, and thereby assure a full supply at all seasons.

The following dimensions are recommended for a barge canal:

We take this canal to be 100 feet wide at the bottom, 8 feet deep, and the slope of the sides to be 1 on 1½. Elevation of the bottom 94 feet above the plane of reference. This gives a cross section of 896 square feet and 4,730,880 cubic feet for 1 mile; and reducing to yards, we have for the entire length of 132 miles 23,128,776 cubic yards of excavation. This estimated at 12 cents per cubic yard, as the excavation is near the surface, we find the total cost to be $2,775,453.12, and with 20 per cent added for contingencies we have $3,330,543.74 as the cost of grading the canal. To this add the cost of 34 locks, 2 guard gates at the termini of the canal, 2 drawbridges at the railroad crossing, and 5 intermediate gates to be used in repairs.

DESCRIPTION AND COST OF LOCKS.

The locks will be taken to have a length of 180 feet and width of 45 feet and depth of 8 feet, with a lift of 7 feet.

ESTIMATE FOR A LOCK.

Pile and timber foundation	$1,500	
1,774 yards of masonry, average cost $15 a yard	26,610	
Lock gates and fastenings	10,500	
Cost of lock		$38,610
Add 10 per cent for contingencies		3,861
Total cost of 1 lock		42,471
Total cost of 34 locks		1,444,014
Two guard-gates, each $20,000	40,000	
Five repair-gates, each $6,000	30,000	
Two drawbridges, each $10,000	20,000	
		90,000
For extra cutting or excavation along the summit level, including cost of crossing the Suwanee		750,000
For the improvement of the St. Marys River to adapt it to navigation in connection with the barge canal		150,000
For the improvement of Ocilla River and bar		750,000

This line involves passing the river at Ellaville at the elevation of their surface and must therefore rise to overcome the high ground beyond. This second summit or high level will extend nearly to the Enconfeenee River, about 30 miles, and may be fed by an abundant supply of water from San Pedro Bay. St. Marks River may be a better terminus for this canal than the Ocilla.

CONCLUSION.

g the foregoing report of the important preliminary survey committed I desire to say, with the means placed at my disposal I have done and what I could for its prosecution and completion, in accordance with ns furnished for my guidance. Much information that would be of to the work has been necessarily omitted for want of larger means, deal has been obtained. Enough, at least, has been learned to estab- tant facts that the Okefinokee Swamp is well adapted, by its physical mpervious soil, to form the bottom of a great reservoir for the collec- ition of storage water to supply a summit level, and it is also capable by reason of its large area and that of its contiguous water sheds sus- ainage into it, an abundant supply of water to feed the summit level ip canal connecting the Atlantic with the Gulf of Mexico. I have, it luced the Suwanee River as a factor in this supply, but there can be doubt, in my opinion, that a thorough drainage of the water surface s would naturally flow into the Okefinokee Swamp) will develop the waters of the Suwanee River may be dispensed with altogether. It upon a further series of levelings, that it would be better to bring the ne lock after passing Ellaville, or to carry it farther north at that point, the heavy cutting through the ridge lying between the Suwanee and rivers.

wever, only a question of cost. I am always in favor of the shortest lic transportation, if they are practicable, as the difference in cost of is not to be considered in comparison with the perpetual cost of opera- airs.

s Mahon was originally in charge of the work and constructed the out- nap.

Winn has materially assisted as the most reliable engineer in charge of

ery respectfully, your obedient servant,

S. L. FREMONT,
United States Assistant Engineer.

Q. A. GILLMORE,
ant-Colonel, Corps of Engineers.

ESTIMATE OF COST OF PRELIMINARY PROJECT SUBMITTED.

	Cubic yards.		
n of summit level	71,342,400		
n of other levels	22,826,760		
n of basins at locks	1,307,600		
n of passing places	600,000		
	96,076,760		
	65,111,360, at 20 cents		$13,022,272
	30,965,400, at 30 cents		9,289,620
ent, summit level	908,160		
ent, other levels	11,645,040		
	12,553,200		
er cent settlement for raising nd connections	2,510,640		
of	15,063,840, at 15 cents		2,259,576
			24,571,468
s in Okefinokee Swamp:			
ments, 12 feet wide on top, 43½			
n west side	2,566,080		
on east side	564,960		
along canal	1,440,000		
excavated and replaced under	464,000		
	5,035,040, at 20 cents		1,007,008

2*a*. Feeders—2 of 8 miles, 1 of 9 miles—15 feet on bottom, 12 feet deep; 15 miles 12 feet on bottom, 12 feet deep. 1,544,800, at 20 cents....		$308,960
3 sets bulkheads, valves, and gates, 1,800 cubic yards of masonry, at $7	$12,600	
63,000 pounds castings, at 10 cents....	6,300	
3,000 pounds wrought iron, at 15 cents.	450	
		19,350
		328,310
3 locks, 10 feet lift, west side:		
1,350 cubic yards cut stone, at $20.....	27,000	
190,254 cubic yards concrete, at $5	951,270	
Lock gates:		
1 pair upper gates.. 194,600 pounds.		
Lower gates..... 262,710 pounds.		
One set..... 457,310 pounds.		
And 6 sets, 2,743,860 pounds, at 8 cents.	219,509	
Valves, chains, and gearing.....	29,880	
		1,227,659
5 locks, 15 feet lift, west side:		
1,880 cubic yards cut stone, at $20	37,600	
368,780 cubic yards concrete, at $5	1,843,900	
Lock gates, one set, 486,500 pounds, 10 sets, 4,865,000 pounds, at 8 cents	389,200	
Chains, valves, gearing, &c.....	49,800	
		2,320,500
6 locks, 15 feet lift, east side:		
2,820 cubic yards cut stone, at $20	56,400	
470,988 cubic yards concrete, at $5	2,354,940	
Lock gates, as above:		
486,500 pounds × 12 = 5,838,000 pounds, at 8 cents	467,040	
Valves, gearing, &c	59,760	
		2,938,140
Saint Marys River lock, 15 feet lift:		
17,710 piles, at $4.....	70,840	
139,000 feet B. M. sheet piling, at $30	4,170	
63,628 cubic yards concrete, at $5	318,140	
470 cubic yards cut stone, at $20.....	9,400	
Lock gates, 486,500 pounds × 2 = 973,000 pounds, at 8 cents.....	77,840	
Chains, valves, and gearing.....	9,960	
		490,350
		6,976,649
4. Dam on Suwannee:		
Masonry in dam and foundation	10,250	
Masonry in wings, etc.....	11,800	
	22,050, at $6.....	132,300
Additional embankment, 73,500, at 25 cents		18,375
Cribs, $2,000; cofferdam, $10,000		12,000
For 500 linear feet movable dam on top of masonry dam, 5 feet high, chanoine wickets, with trestle bridge above, 7 feet high.....		9,000
		171,675
5. Crossing Alapaha and Withlacoochee (estimated).....		160,000
Add cribs here and elsewhere		19,320
		179,320
6. 2 railroad bridges:		
2 circular drawpiers, with rest piers	2,070·4 cubic yards.	
4 lateral piers.....	929·6 cubic yards.	
	3,000, at $5.....	15,000

6. 2 railroad bridges—Continued.		
Superstructure:		
2 drawspans, 130 feet long, $9,800 each		$19,600
2 fixed spans, 56 feet long, $1,710 each		3,420
12·5 M feet B. M. timber, at $40		500
Total for 2 bridges		38,520
7. Ten highway bridges, 15,000 yards masonry, at $5		75,000
Superstructure drawspans	$59,780	
Superstructure fixed spans	17,100	
		76,880
		151,800
8. Land damages, $117^m \times \frac{1}{8}^m = 15 +$ square miles +	9,600 acres.	
200 square miles of swamp	128,000 acres.	
Reservoir on Suwannee, $25^m \times 2^m$	32,000 acres.	
Or 41,600 acres, at $20		832,000
128,000 acres, at $2		256,000
		1,088,000
9. Harbor on Gulf coast:		
Dredging channels, 3,138,700 yards, at 15 cents		470,805
Dredging basins, 420,000 yards, at 15 cents		63,000
Excavation of hard material in channels 200 feet wide, 1,481,568 yards, at $1.50		2,222,352
79,200 feet B. M. jetties = 2,000,760 cubic yards, at $1		2,003,760
		4,759,917
10. Saint Marys River improvement, estimated for 29 miles, to be straightened, deepened, &c		2,000,000
11. Cumberland Sound and mouth of Saint Marys River (as detailed estimate)		2,071,000
Reservoir on Suwannee River:		
Dam of Suwannee reservoir—		
Foundation, concrete	1,496 cubic yards.	
Dam, concrete	28,500 cubic yards.	
Wing walls, concrete	13,884 cubic yards.	
Lock and breast walls, concrete	3,625 cubic yards.	
	47,503, at $6	285,018
Culvert pipes and valves		13,200
Lock gates and valves		600
Crib, 216 M feet B. M. timber, at $40		8,640
Embankment, 375,000 cubic yards, at 20 cents		75,000
		382,458
Engine house, &c	$100,000	
Engine, boilers, and centrifugal pumps	280,000	
Cost of operation annually, $10,952, capitalized at 6 per cent	182,533	
		562,533
		944,991
If this second plan should be adopted, the amount of the estimate on another page		43,343,747
will be diminished by the cost of the northern reservoir in Okefinokee Swamp with its feeders		878,496
		42,465,251
and increased by the above estimate for the Suwannee reservoir and pumping station		944,991
Amount for this project		43,410,242
16 per cent as above		6,945,638
		50,355,880

ESTIMATE OF ANNUAL REPAIRS AND OPERATING EXPENSES.

Canal prism, banks, slopes, ditches, riprap, 122 miles, at $1,000 per mile		$122,000
Locks and lock gates:		
For masonry locks, each	$1,000	
For renewal of lock gates in 20 years	2,500	
For annual repairs, painting, &c	2,000	
15 locks, $5,500		82,500
Repairs of dams, $15,000; reservoirs, $15,000		30,000
Atlantic Harbor and Saint Marys River:		
100,000 cubic yards dredging	$15,000	
2,000 cubic yards stone on jetties	8,000	
		23,000
Gulf Harbor, 20,000 yards dredging	3,000	
1,000 yards stone	4,000	
		7,000
Dredging in silt basins and canal, 600,000 cubic yards		90,000
Total repairs		354,500
Operating expenses:		
Administration and general expenses	$80,000	
Locks	54,000	
Harbor lights, buoys, &c	13,500	
		147,500
Repairs and operating expenses		502,000

Respectfully submitted.

Q. A. GILLMORE,
Lieut. Col. of Engineers, Bvt. Maj. Gen.

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3D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 119.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARCH 15, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. GALLINGER submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Secretary of the Treasury and the Secretary of the Interior be directed to transmit to the Senate, in separate lists, the names of all clerks appointed, promoted, reduced, and dismissed since the fourth day of March, eighteen hundred and ninety-three, and the State to which each clerk is credited.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 120.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARCH 15, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. PEFFER submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on Post-Offices and Post-Roads be, and it is hereby, instructed to consider and report whether the postal laws and regulations ought not to be so amended that any person shall have the right to mail any periodical, tract, leaflet, or other similar publication, by the sack or otherwise, and have the same delivered to any receiver of mail at any domestic post-office when the postage is prepaid thereon at the rate of one cent per pound or fractional part thereof, and when such publications are not of obscene or immoral character, not issued for advertising purposes, nor to incite riot or insurrection.

O

3D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 121.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

HEARING

BEFORE THE

COMMITTEE ON WOMAN SUFFRAGE,

FEBRUARY 21, 1894.

MARCH 14, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *February 21, 1894.*

The committee met in the Marble room of the Capitol at 10 a. m.

Present: The chairman (Mr. HOAR) and Senators TELLER, WOLCOTT, BLACKBURN, and HILL.

The speakers were introduced by the corresponding secretary of the association, Mrs. R. F. Avery, of Somerton, Pa., the first speaker being Rev. Ida Hulton.

REMARKS OF REV. IDA HULTON.

Mr. CHAIRMAN: In life there are things organic and inorganic. In thinking of human life anywhere and everywhere we find it an organism, and there are no diverse parts that have not relation each to the other and to all parts. And so we find it in human life. There can be no part of the human being that has not relation to every other part, and therefore that which concerns the whole must concern each part of the whole. Therefore that which concerns the man half of humanity must concern the woman half, and that which is necessary to the development of humanity as a whole must be necessary to the development of each half of the human whole. We find that is true of the whole life. There is no meaning in life except development, continuous development, progressive development; and if it is necessary for one half to have certain things in its development it must be necessary to the other half.

This is all that women ask, simply a chance to develop, simply a chance to work out their own salvation, if you choose to call it so. When I say that, I do not mean it in a theological sense. I mean salvation in the sense of development within themselves. We ask this, and this alone. We ask nothing because we are women. We ask everything because we are human, because before a woman is a wife or a mother, or a sister, or a daughter, she is a human being. We ask it because we feel that we have an inalienable right to every opportunity

which life presents for our development. We ask it because we feel that we have an inalienable right to enter every door, to tread every pathway, to solve every problem, to ask and answer every question that is associated with human development. What life means to us in its details—the every-dayness of life—is the means to the end, the end being human development. Simple minds have taken the care of the body as the end of life, and have acted as if it were so; but the body is only the means to an end. Therefore we are finding that this movement is one of the means in the development of all the faculties and powers of the soul of the human.

In all the details and obligations of life everything is a means to an end; nothing is an end in itself. Therefore, national life is a means to an end—the end being human development. There is no end in national life. It is not an end in itself, any more than any other point in human life is an end; it is a means to an end.

We only ask this suffrage as our right, as our right to work out our own development, and to make humanity mean more in the future than it has meant in the past. We do not ask it simply for ourselves. We do not ask it simply that we may vote. We only want it so that we shall enter into the life of humanity.

We do not want the masculine in the woman entering into the development of human life. We want the womanly part of human nature to enter into the makeup of human life, so as to affect the national life. It is the womanly element that is needed to do it. We have no sympathy with the thought that we seek suffrage because women want to be men, or because they want to do men's work in men's ways. They simply want it, as women, to do women's work. It is not because they hope to forsake the home, but they want it so that they may develop themselves and make home mean more; they want it to help them to realize that they are a part of humanity; that humanity respects them as such, and that they are helping men and women to be purer and better in the generations as they go across the earth.

REMARKS OF MISS ALICE STONE BLACKWELL.

The next lady introduced to the committee was Miss Alice Stone Blackwell, of Boston, Mass., recording secretary of the association. Miss Stone said:

Mr. CHAIRMAN AND GENTLEMEN OF THE COMMITTEE: As we were coming along the corridors of the Capitol on our way to this hearing I overheard a gentleman who, I think, is a member of Congress, say: "We shall have to let the women vote. This is what we are coming to." I suppose he meant that this perpetual procession of women through the halls of the Capitol will go on until their efforts are crowned with success. That gentleman was a true prophet. We will continue to come here until the suffrage comes to us.

One very common argument against giving suffrage to women is that the majority of women themselves do not want it. I shall confine my remarks this morning to that one point. Unfortunately that argument proves too much. The various successive changes that have taken place in regard to the person and property, and educational and professional opportunities of women during the last fifty years have been much greater than the change that is now asked for; and every one of those successive steps (all of which are now generally approved) was

ıde before a majority of women asked for it, and even against the ıapproval of a majority of women.

When a merchant in a town in Maine employed the first woman in ; store, the men of the place boycotted the store and the women held the men. When the effort was made to have women study :dicine, and Dr. Elizabeth Blackwell dared to do so, not only did the men y very severe things, but even the women refused to speak to her, and ıave heard her say that the contemptuous and irritating remarks of ɜ women made were even more painful than the opposition from the :n. So, too, when the effort was begun to be made to secure equal ɔperty rights to the women. Women said of it with contempt: "Do u think that I would give myself where I would not give my prop- ;y?" So, too, with the effort to secure higher education for women. ɔu recollect with what contempt it was received.

In eastern countries where the women are shut up in zenanas and are t permitted to appear on the streets unveiled, women themselves hold those restrictions. The Chinese lady is just as proud of her all feet as any American woman is of her personal adornment. ey tell us that in India the masses of the Hindoo women are so ıch opposed to the idea of education that, when a progressive Hin- o proposes to educate his little daughter, it is not uncommon for the ɔmen of the family to threaten to commit suicide. They have always ɔught that a learned woman is a monstrosity, and that if a woman ıld read and write she would lose her husband's affection and lose r high place in the heart of her family.

The objections to giving woman suffrage are only the same objections at have been made to every one of these successive steps in the prog- ɜs of women. They have been found to be entirely erroneous. They ve not been the dreadful things which they, at first, appeared to be. Then, again, we can see that we have much more sentiment among ɔmen in favor of the change now asked for than there was in favor of y of the other changes. A member of Congress has said that there ɜ more petitions presented to Congress for woman suffrage than on y other subject, and that, in every case where there are petitions for ffrage and remonstrances against it, the petitioners have always out- ımbered the remonstrants by 5 to 1, and sometimes by 50 to 1. The ıonstrants in Massachusetts have ceased sending in remonstrances cause they can not find any one to sign them. So that I think it is rly proved that the women who take any lively interest in the ques- ɔn, for or against, are generally in favor of it. And we say that it only fair that those who do not care about the matter at all should t be counted.

Of those who do take a lively interest in it the great majority is in vor of it. Formerly there was very little sentiment in favor of woman ffrage; but to-day there is a great deal. A New York woman, in the nvention which this association has just held in Washington, told me e other day that she has been lecturing and traveling in the country stricts for woman suffrage. She is not a celebrated woman, and she res no more for suffrage than hundreds of others. She has been rid- g from village to village in an open sleigh, and undergoing all kinds hardships; but she says that she is not going to take a moment's sure until woman suffrage is secured, and then she will be satisfied lie down and die.

When this suffrage movement war begun there was very little desire accomplish it. Now, there is a great deal. One of the speakers at r convention this week illustrated it by a story that she told of two

frogs, one an optimistic and the other a pessimistic. They fell into a pail of milk. The pessimistic frog let himself sink to the bottom of the pail and lay there. But the optimistic frog continued to make a struggle to rise until finally he churned a large pat of butter, on which he floated and escaped. So, when we began this struggle there was very little encouragement for us, but we have kept up the agitation until we have produced a mass of public opinion almost large enough for us to climb up on and escape.

Senator WOLCOTT. Has the Woman's Suffrage Association made any estimate or kept any record of the increase or decrease of the woman vote in those States where woman suffrage has been established? In other words, is the number of women voting growing more or less from year to year?

Miss BLACKWELL. I can not speak of any other State than Massachusetts. During the last six years the woman vote in Boston has averaged about ten times what it was during the preceding six years.

Senator WOLCOTT. Somebody told me in Boston the other day that of late years the number of women voting was falling off; and, if so, I would like to hear some reason for it.

Miss BLACKWELL. That was an erroneous statement. In 1888 there was an unprecedentedly large school vote in consequence of a particularly exciting election, and 20,000 women voted.

Senator WOLCOTT. How many women voters are there in Boston?

Miss BLACKWELL. I can not give the figures. The woman vote declined for several years after 1888, the emergency having passed away. But for the last two or three years the vote has been increasing. We have now about 10,000 women vote every year.

Senator WOLCOTT. In Boston?

Miss BLACKWELL. Yes, about 10,000. Previous to the election of 1888 the average woman vote was about 1,000.

The CHAIRMAN. There are about 70,000 voters in Boston.

Senator WOLCOTT. Is it your opinion that, as suffrage extends from year to year, the intelligent vote will be more largely cast every year?

Miss BLACKWELL. My opinion is that the vote of women will be in proportion to the importance of the subject, just as with men. In the State of Kansas where women have municipal suffrage, the vote is very large, and is increasing at every election, according to the testimony of the governor and others. In Wyoming where women have full suffrage, they vote as largely as the men. In the Presidential election the vote of men is very large; in the State election it is smaller, and in the municipal election it is smaller still. It is the same way with the women. I think that that is very wrong and very foolish, because people should be as careful to secure a good school board as to secure a good President of the United States. That is a new proof of the truth of the saying that, in the matter of foolishness "God Almighty made the women to match the men."

Senator WOLCOTT. Do the statistics of Wyoming show that the women vote as generally as the men?

Miss BLACKWELL. Statistics collected a few years ago show that nine-tenths of the women of Wyoming vote, and only eight-tenths of the men. I think, however, that those statistics refer to one special election in one town; but they are supposed to be a fair average. Mrs. Colby, who is an authority on Wyoming, will speak later.

REMARKS OF MRS. LUCRETIA MITCHELL, OF PENNSYLVANIA.

Mrs. L. MITCHELL, of Pennsylvania, who was the next lady introduced, said:

Pennsylvania has begun to fall in line on this point of suffrage. Colorado has come in, and New York and Kansas; but Pennsylvania, the land of the Quakers, where women have always stood equal by the side of men in all questions of church and home, should come in now and confidently and emphatically demand the right of women to vote. [Mrs. Mitchell gave her time to Kansas.]

REMARKS OF MRS. ANNA L. DIGGS, OF KANSAS.

Mrs. ANNA L. DIGGS, of Kansas, was the next speaker. She said:

Mr. Chairman and gentlemen of the Committee: I think it may be fairly said that woman suffrage has been more fully and largely tested in Kansas than anywhere else—not forgetting at all that Wyoming and the State of Washington have tested full suffrage, whereas we in Kansas have only tested it along the lines of municipal action. In two instances, at the last municipal election, the woman vote exceeded the vote of the men in two cities. Whether the election was exciting or not we have gained in proportion to the men. There has been a steady increase of sentiment in favor of woman suffrage all the way through. All the old theoretical objections have long since ceased to be used against the ballot in the hands of women in Kansas. There is not a single living theoretical objection there. They have been all dissipated by actual facts. We see that our homes are well taken care of. The idle, false objection that women would neglect their homes if they got the ballot has died long ago.

No man could possibly make himself more ridiculous than to rise before a Kansas audience and make such an objection. Some men may still fall into the trap by saying that governments are based upon force and that women should not vote because they can not fight. Some men may still make that objection because it has not been tested. We have not fought, we know; we might, but we do not want to.

Now I am going to show you in the most practical way I can the state of public sentiment that has grown up out of our use of the ballot in the municipal elections of Kansas.

I assure you that no politician there to-day who had the slightest hope of gaining favor from the public, or who had any political ambition whatever, and expected to gain office, would rise before a Kansas audience and say anything derogatory to the ballot in the hands of women. The very last thing that a man seeking office and desiring to get it would do would be to declare against woman suffrage; but no party or politician that hopes to gain anything will for a moment oppose the enfranchisement of women. The public sentiment in favor of equal rights has grown, and I am going to show it to you practically to-day by yielding the rest of my time, and foregoing the pleasure to myself of addressing the committee any longer. I now introduce to you a Representative in Congress from our State—the Hon. John Davis. He will speak for Kansas.

REMARKS OF HON. JOHN DAVIS, M. C

Mr. Davis said:

Mr. PRESIDENT AND SENATORS: By request of the ladies present I beg to present a very brief statement and argument of the subject of equal or impartial suffrage.

Suffrage is the soil out of which grows government. If the soil is narrow and meager, permitting the exercise of a single will only, we call the government a monarchy or despotism. When the suffrage soil is broader, permitting the exercise and expression of the will of a class of citizens, the government is called an aristocracy.

When suffrage is still wider and more liberal, conforming to the laws of nature and justice among all classes of citizens, we call the government a democracy.

Suffrage is founded on natural right, and all citizens have equal claims to it; but, like all natural rights, it is subject to restraints and limitations when citizens enter into a state of civilized society. Civilized governments justly claim the right to limit citizenship to native-born persons, and aliens can become citizens only on certain prescribed conditions which shall purge them of their alienism. Even the natural right to life and liberty may be restrained and limited when the safety and welfare of society demand it. But no natural right can justly be restrained and limited unless society can render just and sufficient reasons for doing so. It does not devolve on the individual, nor on any class of individuals, to show that they possess the right of suffrage. It is a preexisting natural right possessed by all alike; and unless society can show that in given cases it is for the safety and welfare of society that said natural right shall be restrained and limited, it must be conceded.

The question as to what the restraints and limitations shall be and to whom they shall apply is always answered by the governing power. If the governing power is a monarch or despot, the king is little restrained and his subjects are much restrained, and perhaps oppressed, reducing them to great inconvenience and distress. If the governing power is an aristocracy, then we find class laws, favoring the few and oppressing the many. In a democracy or republic, where the will of the people is supreme, restraints should be equally borne and all rights equally enjoyed as the welfare and best interests of society may demand.

Society has many ways of expressing its opinions and judgments on economic and political questions, but the tangible and ultimate plan is by the ballot. The ballot is a means of recording an individual opinion, which, when counted and computed with other individual opinions, recorded in the same authoritative way, shall indicate the aggregate public opinion on any given subject. Plainly, then, in civilized society, only those should vote who can form or entertain opinions, and whose opinions when formed are in friendly accord with the principles of the civilized society in question. Infants, lunatics, and idiots can not form opinions, hence infants, lunatics, and idiots should be restrained from voting. Criminals do not entertain opinions friendly to the society with which they are at variance, and aliens are not supposed to form friendly opinions toward a society which is in competition with that of which they are native-born members, or with a society whose genius they have had no opportunity of understanding. Hence criminals and aliens should be restrained from voting. But if infants, idiots, lunatics, criminals, and aliens should in any just and lawful manner become

urged or free from their disabilities then they should be permitted to ast the ballot. Infants are purged of infancy at the age of 21 years. There are fixed lawful rules prescribed by which aliens are freed from heir alienism. When thus freed from their disabilities infants and liens very properly become voters. If it is practicable to relieve idiots, inatics, and criminals of their disabilities, then they should become oters, but not otherwise.

In our judgment sex should form no bar or disability in the matter f voting. We find adultsane men and women equally capable of forming and entertaining opinions. The ballot is a means of commanding espect and of protecting personal rights and interests. Men and omen are equally entitled to respect, and both have personal rights nd interests requiring protection.

It is maintained by some that the ballot rests ultimately on the bulet; that majorities rule minorities, because majorities can defeat minorties on the battlefield. Then it is assumed that, therefore, woman hould not cast the ballot because she may not or can not bear arms on he battlefield. The conclusion is wrong. The assumption is founded n the lowest ethics of savagery, and has no place in civilized society. t is assumed that, in some imaginary exigency of government, most of he noncombatants may vote in the majority; that most of the fighting men able to bear arms may vote in the minority; and that, in such ase, a rebellious minority could not be coerced into submission. On he ethics of savagery such contingencies may arise, but not in civilzed society.

In the ethics of savagery women have little influence, and a dozen braves may bully and defy a thousand children and squaws. Their respect for the helpless is slight and their sense of patriotism scarcely extends into the future. Savages are little troubled with anxiety for the welfare of posterity. In the ethics of savagery it is assumed that woman is not a combatant, and hence should be excluded from the ballot.

In a thousand ways civilized society differs from savagery. There are social ties and sentiments of patriotism, and feelings of obligation to our fellows in civilized society, not found in savagery. The armies on both sides were fuller during the late war because both male and female hearts swelled with the same patriotism; because mothers, wives, and sisters said to sons, husbands, and brothers, "Go"; and noble men at Shiloh, Gettysburg, and Chattanooga fought more bravely, fell more willingly, and died more cheerfully because of the well-thumbed pages of encouragement from mothers, wives, and sweethearts, carefully stowed away among the soldiers' personal treasures. Female courage, female patriotism and female voices were a *war power* in that great struggle, powerfully felt and grandly acknowledged on both sides.

But this part of the subject must be built up from the lowest bed-rock. Let us appeal to physical facts plain to the comprehension of the humblest. In what consists the war power of nations? All history and philosophy since the Middle Ages, reply, "The war power of nations and peoples consists of the purse and the sword." That statement being true, what is the percentage of purse and what is the percentage of sword in the most effective war power?

Russia is a military nation. There are, say, in the entire Russian Empire 100,000,000 of people. On a war footing the Empire musters 3,000,000 of soldiers. What is the percentage? The swords amount to 3 per cent of the people. Ninety-seven per cent of the people are devoted to the purse and to recuperative purposes. Let us say, then,

as we safely may, that when the Empire of Russia is on an active war footing, with 3,000,000 soldiers in the field, putting forth her utmost power on a hundred battle-fields, only about 3 per cent of her population is under arms. Ninety-seven per cent are devoted to arming, clothing, feeding, encouraging, paying, recuperating, burying, and replacing the soldiers. One-half of the money earners and army supporters in Russia are females; one-half of that incomprehensible, powerful military arm of the Russian Empire rests on the hearts and bones and sinews of women. What is true of Russia is true of Germany, of France, of England, and of America. Behind every body of armed troops in the field there must be an adequate supporting population. This is the rule and history of the modern, half-barbarous war power. One-half of any national population may be reckoned female. Every loom and spindle run a by pale-faced girl is a "war power." Napoleon beat the armies of continental Europe, but was sent into exile by the spindles and looms of the British Islands, mainly operated by female hands.

Mr. Allison attributes England's wonderful success to the "persevering industry of the British people and the extent of the commerce which they maintained in every quarter of the globe," and to their "admirable system of finance, which seemed to rise superior to every difficulty with which it had to contend." In short, England conquers with the purse more than by the sword. The purse is fed and sustained by the women and noncombatants of the Empire. The sword is scarcely 1 per cent of her inexhaustible war power. The Duke of Wellington and the mightiest generals of the continent could only hold Napoleon in check—the women and girls of Manchester captured him, disarmed him, and sent him into exile.

In the United States over twenty millions of people above the age of 10 years are engaged in gainful occupations. Fully two-thirds of them are noncombatants—unfit for military duty in the field by reason of age or sex, yet every one of them is a wealth producer and swells the war power of the nation. This is indisputable. Shall all noncombatants be deprived of the ballot because, by ultimate logic or chance, in some imaginary exigency, it may be necessary to enforce the decisions of the ballot by the use of the bullet? And as noncombatants can not carry the musket, must they therefore not vote? Where is the much-lauded gallantry of man, that he would fire bullets and charge bayonets in the face of his mother, his sister, his wife, his daughter, or his sweetheart, with not another man noble and gallant enough to object? Such brutality and lack of gallantry must be sought in a state of savagery or in the restricted-suffrage countries of Europe. It will never be found in countries where the political advancement of man depends on the ballot of woman.

The ballot was given to the negro, not as a war power—it was not given until five years after the war was over—but for personal protection. Is the negro with a ballot in his hand respected more or less on that account? The question is too silly for serious consideration. Woman needs the ballot for self protection. Will man treat woman with more or less respect and gallantry when he finds her vote necessary to the gratification of his "manly aspirations?" Does a lad treat his lass with more or less respect and gallantry when on bended knee he avers that her "consent" is necessary to his future happiness? What sort of a figure would he cut, musket in hand, marching and shooting with the rebellious minority, with his mother, sister, and lady love standing unarmed on the other side to be shot? Such absurdities belong to the *ethics of* savagery, or to the narrow-suffrage countries of the world.

The units of civilized society are dual, yet united, consisting of the rong right arm of man and the warm beating heart of woman; with unity of intellectual and moral forces. Show me an institution of ciety where a man delights to enter in company with his mother, ster, wife or daughter, and I will show you an institution which tends civilization. Show me an institution where man does not desire to eet his mother, sister, wife, or daughter, and I will show you an institution which tends to barbarism. Show me the voting place where omen are excluded and I will show you a place repulsive to the best ements of society and frequently in need of police guardianship. ow me a place where women cast their ballots, and I will show you rpeted rooms and tables embellished with flowers, and not requiring lice protection.

The question to-day is not whether women desire to vote. But, Is it tter for society that men and women should vote together? It is the ty of wisdom and patriotism to consider and decide this question. ir Christian civilization depends upon its right solution. The exerse of the voting franchise is a duty, as well as a privilege.

Mr. President, we should approach new experiments in government refully. Our system of government with a union of States under one neral head is wise and fortunate. New advancements in the upward arch of progress may be tested on a small scale at first, and then lopted more widely or laid aside, without harm to the General Govnment or to sister States. The State of Kansas has adopted municil suffrage for women, with great benefit to society. It is now prosed to extend the franchise for woman in that State to an equality ith man. Many other States have done as much as Kansas has, and me have done all that we propose to do, with no harm reported from ny. Mr. President and Senators, it is now asked of you to earnestly onsider the subject of making equal suffrage for man and woman the olicy of the nation, either State by State or the nation, as in your dgment may be thought best for society.

REMARKS OF MRS. SARAH CLAY BENNETT, OF KENTUCKY.

The next lady introduced was Mrs. SARAH CLAY BENNETT, of Kentucky.

Mrs. BENNETT said: Mr. CHAIRMAN AND GENTLEMEN: Black men nd women voted in the State of New Jersey for about eighteen years hen our National Government was first organized, New Jersey having ntered the Union with a constitution adopted in 1776, and did not rescribe either whiteness or masculineness as a qualification for voting. o it is impossible for any person to hold that the right to vote for embers of the United States House of Representatives is derived from ur National Constitution, without admitting that black men and women re qualified to vote for members of Congress by the people of the nited States, when they said in the first article of the Constitution that e House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen very second year by the people of the several States.

But in 1870, after the fourteenth amendment was adopted, which eclared that no State should make or enforce any law for the abridgent of the privileges and immunities of citizens of the United States, ack men were authorized to vote at all elections at which they were herwise qualified to vote, and Congress passed an act to punish any erson who shall try to prevent black men from voting for members of

Congress. So when Virginia Minor came before the judges of the Supreme Court of the United States asking to be protected equally with black men in voting at public elections in the State of Missouri under that clause of the fourteenth amendment which said: "No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States," the judges of the Supreme Court were placed between the two horns of this dilemma—either to hold with the Congressmen of 1870 that the right to vote for the elective officers of the United States was derived from the Constitution and laws of the States, and thus declare Federal suffrage nonexistent, or to hold that persons were qualified to vote for the elective officers of the United States by the people of the United States, and thus declare the Congressional act of 1870 to be unconstitutional.

In their Virginia Minor decision the judges of the Supreme Court took hold of the first horn of the dilemma, first declaring that women had been citizens of the United States from the foundation of our National Government and entitled to "all the privileges and immunities of citizens of the United States," and that the fourteenth amendment prohibited the State of which she is a citizen from abridging any of her privileges and immunities as a citizen of the United States.

REMARKS OF MRS. WRIGHT, OF NEW JERSEY.

The next lady introduced was Mrs. WRIGHT, of New Jersey. Mrs. WRIGHT said:

Mr. CHAIRMAN AND GENTLEMEN: You have heard from the lady who last addressed you that women voted in the State of New Jersey. That right was taken from them in 1807. We now have been given school suffrage. It was asked here to-day whether women who have the right to vote exercise that right. I will say that I have attended elections at which there were more women than there were men. We have very excellent schools in New Jersey. We have school-houses dotted all over the State, and increasing in size almost every year. I believe that all our children are provided with school privileges. Then we have a large educational fund belonging to the State—$3,000,000.

Since the liberty to vote has been taken away from the women the State of New Jersey has gradually declined in its politics until now—well, you know how our legislature is. And I believe that the very best people of our State, both men and women, want the women to vote again. That is why I come here to Washington year after year, hoping that we shall have that right. And I feel more encouraged now than ever. I do not feel that I shall have to come to Washington many more times. And I feel that the prospect of woman suffrage is brighter for New Jersey than for any other State, because we have already had it.

REMARKS OF MRS. ALICE SMITH, OF VERMONT.

Mrs. ALICE SMITH, of Vermont, was next introduced. Mrs. SMITH said:

I come from a State of high mountains, high and rugged mountains, and narrow and fertile valleys; and I sometimes think that my people are as rugged as their mountains and as narrow as their valleys. They read two things, the New York Tribune and the Bible. And may the

Lord preserve the children if they do not go to Sunday school and church, for the blue laws are observed there. But in spite of all that a great many women want the ballot; and some of them want it so badly that they formed themselves into a suffrage association and sent me down here, and my heart has been cheered to see how many women and men there are following the apostolic injunction of helping the women.

The women of Vermont have intelligence. Mrs. Willard started her educational work in my native village, Middleboro. We have school suffrage in Vermont. At the last school meeting that I went to there were thirty-two women present and seventeen gentlemen, by actual count. That made a little sport, because it was said that the men were giving it all up to the women. And the women are doing the work well. The Washington schools are models after the New England schools.

You need not be afraid to give woman suffrage to us. Our young blood goes away. The young men leave to follow Horace Greeley's injunction—to go west. They seem to think, as Stephen A. Douglas did, that Vermont is a very good place for a man to be born in provided he emigrates from it in time. There are more people in 1 square mile in New York City than there are in the whole State of Vermont, but we still have men enough to hold the offices.

REMARKS OF MRS CLARA BEWICK COLBY, OF NEBRASKA.

Mrs. CLARA B. COLBY, of Nebraska, was the next speaker. She said:

Mr. CHAIRMAN AND GENTLEMEN OF THE COMMITTEE: We have come here to ask you to make a favorable report on the joint resolution now before your body, proposing an amendment to the National Constitution. And certainly it is not very much to ask of you when you know that it has to have the vote of two-thirds of the Senate and House and of three-fourths of the states.

A favorable report from your committee is the particular practical point that we desire to press upon you to-day. While you are doing this much for us you are doing a good deal for the people of the country in educating them to consider this matter which comes before the two highest bodies of the nation for their action. Year after year women from various States of the Union have come up here and asked for this simple act of justice; and favorable reports have been made, and great progress throughout the country has resulted, but the women citizens of this country have not yet been secured in their rights as citizens, and as Miss Blackwell has said, this procession must keep coming on here till this act of justice is done.

We are asking that we shall be recognized as citizens of the United States. I wish I had brought with me here a picture that I have. It emanates from Kansas. It is not a beautiful picture. It is a picture that I do not like to look at. Once seen it will haunt the memory for years, but it would be a splendid picture for you to have in your committee room, and I will place it there later. Our suffrage women have been buying it and are taking it home, not to hang it in their bedrooms or parlors, but to hide it away and to bring it out as the last argument when they find a man actually impervious to every other argument in favor of woman suffrage.

In the center of it is Miss Willard; in one corner an idiot—of course a

male idiot; in another corner an insane person; in another corner a blanketed Indian; and in the fourth corner one of the worst specimens of the criminal class. It is a most haunting picture, this of "Woman and her political peers," yet it represents a fact, a terrible fact. When Mrs. Wall, of Kansas, was preparing the large art painting from which this photograph is taken she consulted with me about the central figure. We felt that the aged leaders of our suffrage cause could not be thus portrayed, but the central figure must be a younger woman; and Frances Willard was brave enough to allow her picture to be used, and so she is there, with her sweet, serene, lovely, and intellectual face representing, not the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, but all the womanhood of this land, condemned to this disgraceful political companionship.

That picture is the best argument in favor of the passage of the joint resolution that we can present to you, and we trust that your chivalry and sense of justice will compel you to assist our efforts to release ourselves from this shameful category of the disfranchised.

The argument that women do not ask for suffrage has no merit. The fact that they do not realize its importance does not change the need of their becoming responsible factors in the government of this nation. As soon as they feel this need keenly and are ready to acknowledge it, without suffrage, they are free, and have gained the power to transmit freedom to their posterity. It is the women who do not realize it, who are bearing in their natures, ineffaceably, the mark of its absence, and who are transmitting to their sons their disregard of liberty and of national virtue. It is because we have had these mothers throughout our past history that patriotism has sunk so low that one of our leading statesmen has dared to characterize the fundamental principle on which our Government is based as "an iridescent dream." The voice of patriotism has been heard in the halls wherever woman suffrage has been preached. We want to teach the importance and necessity of women feeling responsible for the kind of statesmanship we have.

Men say, "We have given you already education and property and and an opening to all professions, and why must you now have the ballot?" We must have it just because we have the other things. Having granted them, you must give us the ballot, for it is that by which we must protect them and use them for the public good. We have the highest educational privileges, and women are now beginning to have them in the South. Two of the best colleges in South Carolina have been opened to women in the past year; and now that we are a power in the land, it is for you to say that this power shall be consecrated to the service of the country.

The condition of savagery has been mentioned here. I heard the other day from a Kickapoo Indian that his division of the tribe was ruled over by a queen. I'd rather be queen of the Kickapoos, occupying my time for the welfare of my people than the most educated and wealthy woman in our land who cared nothing for her country's weal. We have not perhaps realized the true condition of woman in savagery.

The most interesting room of all to me in the Woman's Building contained the work of women in savagery, and as I looked upon the unanswerable witnesses to the fact that the arts and industries whose origin in our race has been unsuspected were all due to the inventive skill and patient industry of woman, I bowed in reverence before those toilers of the past, the reward of whose labors we have entered into, and I ask what can we do for our day and generation which shall be relatively as valuable as their work.

But while in savagery women were the industrial superior, only a gen-
ration ago women were a more influential factor in the national indus-
ries than they are now. Now the daughters of the poorer classes go
it to work under the command of men, while the wealthy women,
ho used in olden times to personally superintend the domestic indus-
ries, have now only to do with the finished products.

Men have entered our homes, and have taken away many of the
idustries which occupied the time of our grandmothers. You bake
ir bread; you wash our clothes; you do our husbands' and sons' tail-
ring; you do our knitting, spinning, and weaving (that is, you super-
itend it); you even aspire to make our dresses and bonnets. Well, I
ill never say men; nay, I will never twit them with getting out of their
phere. But now, as all these industries of our grandmothers are car-
ed on largely by men, with the changed condition of women in our
dvancing civilization, I ask that they have an opportunity to consecrate
heir new powers and possibilities to the good of their country as con-
cientiously as did the foremothers of this Republic.

We come before you, gentlemen, as the highest tribunal of the land
plead this cause. We come from New England, from the great
rairies of the West, and from the South, where they are just beginning
work and talk for woman's enfranchisement. We know no partisan-
hip. We are of no sect and of no party. And, gentlemen, can you
ot rise above party considerations and stand for mere justice? Can
ou not stand where we all do, and say "this shall not be a matter for
arty consideration"? We ask you now to enable us to present this
natter to our State legislatures so that they may pass upon it, and
atisfy the instrument that shall protect our rights as free citizens of
he United States.

I have been asked to say something about Wyoming. Two years
go, in the hearing before the Senate committee, I presented a long
rgument in relation to Wyoming, and I wish I had brought a copy of
he report with me.

Senator WOLCOTT. Can you furnish it to the committee, and give the
igures showing the increase of the vote in the State and showing the
proportion of women voting, and whether that proportion is increasing
r diminishing?

Mrs. COLBY. I can do so. And when the statement comes to you it
vill bear the ratification and indorsement of women suffrage by every
governor of that State. It will also contain the memorial which was
ent to Congress asking Congress to enfranchise the women as the
vomen of Washington Territory had been enfranchised. And it will
ring the testimony that the women there vote in as large a proportion
s the men.

In this statement there will be statistics that come from Mr. Carroll
D. Wright's office showing that the ratio of divorce does not increase in
Wyoming as elsewhere. In round numbers the ratio of divorce in
Wyoming as compared with the whole country is as 1 to 4. Compared
with other Western States grouped with Wyoming and forming the
Pacific group it is as 1 to 3.

Gentlemen, you must give us woman suffrage to save the home.

WOMAN SUFFRAGE IN WYOMING.

Article 1, section 2. In their inherent right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of hap-
piness, all members of the human race are equal.

Sec. 3. Since equality in the enjoyment of natural and civil rights is only made
sure through political equality, the laws of this State affecting the political rights

and privileges of its citizens shall be without distinction of race, color, sex, or any circumstance or condition whatsoever other than individual incompetency or unworthiness, duly ascertained by a court of competent jurisdiction.

Thus reads the declaration of rights of the constitution of the State of Wyoming, and these sections are enforced by the first section of article 6, which says: "The rights of citizens of the State of Wyoming to vote and hold office shall not be denied or abridged on account of sex."

If the status of Wyoming has been materially benefited by the vote of women, where it has prevailed for twenty-five years, it will certainly be the best argument for an amendment to the national Constitution which will prohibit the disfranchisement of women on account of sex, and for its adoption in every State in the Union.

In compiling the first volume of the laws of Wyoming Secretary Lee said: "In the provisions of the woman's suffrage clause, enacted in 1869, we placed the youngest territory on earth in the vanguard of civilization and progress." That this statement has been verified by practical experience the testimony is unanimous, continuous, and conclusive. Not a link is wanting in the chain of evidence, and, as a governor of the Territory once said: "The only dissenting voice against woman's suffrage was that of convicts who had been tried and found guilty by women jurors." Women exercised the right of jurors, and contributed to the speedy release of the Territory from the régimé of the pistol and bowie-knife. They not only performed their new duties without losing any of the womanly virtues and with dignity and decorum, but good results were immediately borne. Chief Justice Howe, of the supreme court, under whose direction women were first drawn on juries, wrote in 1872: "After the grand jury had been in session two days the dance-house keepers, gamblers, and demimonde fled out of the State in dismay to escape the indictment of women grand jurors. In short," he adds, "I have never, in twenty-five years of constant experience in the courts of the country, seen a more faithful and resolutely honest grand and petit jury than these." And there is no doubt that the superior conditions that exist in Wyoming are in a great measure due to the sitting of women on juries in these early days.

In the official record of Governor John W. Hoyt, in 1878, he stated: "Attendance upon school is obligatory; teachers are equally paid, male and female alike, for the same service." Does not this indicate a favorable result from woman's suffrage when it was the first Commonwealth to adopt compulsory education, and the first, and still the only one, to pay teachers equally without regard to sex? Governor Hoyt's testimony with regard to the direct benefit of woman's suffrage was also very strong in 1882. In his official report he said: "Elsewhere objectors persist in calling this honorable statute of ours 'an experiment.' We know it is not; that under it we have better laws, better officers, better institutions, better morals and higher social conditions in general than could otherwise exist—that none of the predicted evils, such as loss of native delicacy and disturbance of home relations has followed in its train; that the great body of our women, and the best of them, have accepted the elective franchise as a precious boon and exercise it as a patriotic duty—in a word, that after twelve years of happy experience, woman's suffrage is so thoroughly rooted and established in the minds and hearts of the people that, among them all, no voice is ever uplifted in protest against or in question of it."

In 1879 the speaker of the house, Hon. N. L. Andrews, a Democrat, ratified what had been said by the Republican governor's saying publicly: "I came to the Territory in 1871, strongly prejudiced against woman suffrage. It has produced much good, and no evil that I could discern. In my opinion the real health-giving remedy that would counteract political degeneracy would be the ballot in the hands of women in every State and Territory."

In 1883 Chief Justice Joseph W. Fisher stated: "I have seen the effects of woman suffrage. Instead of encouraging fraud and corruption it tends greatly to purify elections."

Governor Francis E. Warren said in 1885: "I have seen much of the workings of woman suffrage. I have yet to hear of the first case of domestic discord growing therefrom. Our women nearly all vote. As the majority of women are good, the result is good—not evil." In the same year he reported to the Secretary of the Interior: "The men are as favorable to woman suffrage as the women are. Wyoming appreciates, believes in, and indorses woman suffrage." In his official report next year, he said: "Woman suffrage continues as popular as at first. The women nearly all vote, and neither party objects." And in 1889 he reported: "No one will deny that woman's influence in voting has always been on the side of the Government. The people favor the continuance."

This official evidence as to the beneficial effects of woman suffrage is supported by the universal testimony of residents and the personal experience of visitors, including some of us. On the other side are only random statements born of a prejudice whose wish is father to the thought. We are, therefore, bound to believe that the status of Wyoming has been favorably affected by woman suffrage if we exercise the

ordinary trust and credulity on which our other beliefs and daily transactions are based.

With such an experience of twenty years it was not strange that the delegates to the constitutional convention of July, 1889, the first framers of organic law ever elected by the votes of women, should embody the magnificent declaration which was quoted at the outset, and present to the world the first constitution adopted by man which gives each citizen the same rights guaranteed to every other citizen.

The capsheaf of this column of testimony that woman's ballot had been a controlling factor in obtaining good government, that it had aroused the latent patriotism of women and increased the chivalry of men, was supplied by the great celebration of statehood which was held at Cheyenne July 23, 1890. Side by side with the governor of the the State sat Mrs. Post, the president of the Woman's Suffrage Association. Mrs. Esther Morris, the first woman to perform the duties of justice of the peace, presented to the State, on behalf of the women of the State, a silken flag, containing forty-five stars, "in grateful recognition," as she said, "of the high privileges of citizenship." Mrs. Theresa M. Jenkins, delivering the oration of the day from the steps of the capitol, said: "We have never been compelled to petition or protest; we have ever been treated with a patient hearing, and our practical suggestions have been most courteously received. Happy are our hearts to-day, and our lips but sound a faint echo of the gratitude of our bosoms. Think ye our tongues can now be silent or that we have no need to sing our anthems of praise? History chronicles no such event on all its pages, and the bells of all the past ring out no such victory."

Compare the grand outburst of this occasion with the United States Constitution Centennial, where no woman's voice was heard and no woman was named, and is it not evident that woman suffrage, conferred at first in Wyoming from, perhaps, selfish motives, has awakened the sleeping justice of men and enhanced the dignity of women, making them the acceptable compeers of men, instead of the rejected and ignored humble petitioners that they are in other States.

Following the example of every Territorial governor, Governor Barber, the first State governor, says: "Woman suffrage does not degrade woman. On the contrary, it ennobles her and brings out all the strong attributes of true womanhood. To their credit be it said, the women are almost a unit for ability, honesty, and integrity wherever found, in high life or low life. A man must walk straight in Wyoming, for the women hold the balance of power and they are using it wisely and judiciously. They make the cause of education their first arm and are using it wisely and judiciously. They are making our schools the models of the country, and, too, they can make a dollar go much farther than their husbands."

But, perhaps, the most conspicuous testimony from Wyoming was afforded by its last legislature, which not only memorialized Congress to pass a woman suffrage amendment to the national Constitution, but also adopted the following

CONCURRENT RESOLUTION:

"*Be it resolved by the second legislature of the State of Wyoming,* That the possession and exercise of suffrage by the women in Wyoming for the past quarter of a century has wrought no harm and has done great good in many ways; that it has largely aided in banishing crime, pauperism, and vice from the State, and that without any violent or oppressive legislation; that it has secured peaceful and orderly elections, good government, and a remarkable degree of civilization and public order; and we point with pride to the facts that after nearly twenty-five years of woman suffrage not one county in Wyoming has a poorhouse, that our jails are almost empty, and crime, except that committed by strangers in the State, almost unknown; and as the result of experience we urge every civilized community on earth to enfranchise its women without delay.

"*Resolved,* That an authenticated copy of these resolutions be forwarded by the governor of the State to the legislature of every State and Territory in this country, and to every legislative body in the world; and that we request the press throughout the civilized world to call the attention of their readers to these resolutions."

The above passed the house, but did not reach the senate for want of time; whereupon Mr. Willcox wrote to every senator to know if they would have concurred in it. All but one indorsed it heartily and so did Governor Osborn.

Woman suffrage has never assumed a partisan attitude in Wyoming, and since the Democrats in Congress opposed as a party measure the admission of Wyoming, making its woman-suffrage clause an excuse for their opposition, the Democrats of Wyoming have taken great pains to assure the women that they had always been favorable to woman's possession of the ballot. In 1892, when the Republican party elected women to sit in the national convention, the Democratic party took pains to bring them into their State convention, and even urged one to become a candidate for a leading place on the State ticket.

Although the verdict of the people of the Commonwealth, thus variously expressed, furnishes the best possible evidence of the value of woman suffrage, it is interesting to note how it is supported by figures, wherever it is possible to schedule conditions. In preparing the tables from which these facts are gathered, I made a comparison of the eleven States which form the Western group, and, since the only feature of Wyoming that it does not share with others of these States is the exceptional experience of woman suffrage, it is fair to conclude that any marked difference in its status is due to this fact.

The population of the United States increased in the last decade 24·6 per cent. That of Wyoming has increased 127·9 per cent. But, while the number of criminals in the whole United States has increased 40·3, an alarming ratio—far beyond the increase of population—notwithstanding the immense increase of population in Wyoming the number of criminals has not increased at all, giving a relative decrease which shows a law-abiding community and constantly improving condition of the public morals. In 1880 there were confined in the jails and prisons of Wyoming 74 criminals, 72 men and 2 women. The census of 1890 shows the same number of criminals, 74, as against an average number of criminals in the other Western States of 645·8. This remarkable fact is made more interesting because the 74 in 1890 are all men, and thus the scarecrow of the vicious women in politics disappears. Wyoming being the only State in which the per cent of criminal women has decreased, it is evident that the morals of the female part of the population improve with the exercise of the right of suffrage.

A celebrated student of heredity has said that material development in the nineteenth century has produced such a strain upon the Anglo-Saxon race that unless some influence can be brought to bear to raise it a degree or two in the moral scale to maintain the balance, it must degenerate.

The condition of affairs at this time, with crime increasing nearly twice as fast as the population of the whole United States, and in a much larger ratio in all the Western States except Wyoming, where it has not increased at all, but has a relative decrease of about four-fifths, should make every student of sociology and every patriotic citizen give thoughtful attention to woman suffrage as the possible remedy for national deterioration.

If woman's ballot is the means whereby the moral strength of men can be reinforced and the race lifted a step higher on the moral plane, is there a woman who loves her country or humanity who will refuse her help?

We shall have to have woman suffrage to save the home. How to prevent divorce and maintain the sacred institution of the home is the problem of the day. Wyoming shields more the marriage of its daughters than any other Western State, requiring parental consent for the marriage of any girl under 21. The average duration of marriage before divorce, when persons have been married 21 years or over, is considerably longer in Wyoming than in the average of the Western group and in the average of the whole United States, showing that the married condition of even the unhappily mated is more bearable than elsewhere. The per cent of divorce granted to wives in the United States is very much larger than to husbands, while in Wyoming the difference is much smaller than the average, and it must certainly be for the safety of domestic relations that the bonds should be as bearable to one sex as to the other. This certainly is a point in favor of woman's equality before the law.

In the United States the estimated number of married couples to one divorce was 664 in 1870 and 481 in 1880, the number of divorced marriages in the United States increasing 38 per cent. In the Western group the States (omitting Wyoming) which are beyond or partly beyond the Rocky Mountains, the average increase was 50 per cent. In Nebraska, Wyoming's neighbor, it was 79 per cent. To take the statistics from two exceptionally law-abiding communities: In Michigan it was 50 per cent and in Minnesota it was 55 per cent, while in Wyoming the number of divorced marriages had decreased 29 per cent. Stating the result in another way, divorces increased in the United States from 1870 to 1880, 79·4 per cent, nearly three times the per cent of the increase of the population for the same period, and in the group of Western States, above referred to, they have increased 376·3 per cent, while in Wyoming the increase in divorce is 61·5 per cent, only one-half as large as the per cent of increase of the population.

To state the matter in terms that all can remember, the ratio of divorce in Wyoming is to that of the whole United States as 1 to 3; to that of the other States in the Western group as 1 to 4.

Statistics show that, contrary to the prevailing opinion, divorces are very largely granted where the marriage was celebrated, but of the few divorces obtained in Wyoming almost all are of those married before going to that State. So, while we can well conceive what a shock it must be to marry men immigrating to Wyoming to find themselves for the first time in their lives forced to see at their firesides a legal and political equal, it is a significant fact that men to the manner born find this condition conducive to domestic happiness. That the conditions of a society

'here women have political rights and privileges conduce to a tranquil state of ind and a high degree of intelligence is shown by the statistics of insanity and liocy, Wyoming being far below the average in these. Compare Wyoming with a ypical Eastern State—Connecticut; where the latter has 1 insane person to every 53 of the population, Wyoming has but 1 to every 1,497. Nor is this wholly a difrence of East and West, for Idaho, its neighbor, shows 1 in every 1,029 insane. he proportion of idiots is, in Connecticut, 1 to 616; Idaho, 1 to 1,534, and Wyoing, 1 to 4,336. Especially would voting seem to increase the intelligence of omen, for in both Connecticut and Idaho there are over seven-tenths as many male idiots as there are male idiots, while in Wyoming there are only four-tenths s many.

A careful comparison of the laws of Wyoming with those of other States shows hat they are exceptionally favorable and just to women. They clearly define, s do the laws of no other State, the different offenses against the person of women, aking them dovetail and thus furnishing continued protection. It is a penientiary offense for any person to exercise the arts of the procurer over any male under 18 years of age even with her consent, or over 18 years without it; and he statute omits those usual words of limitation which extend protection only to he virtuous, leaving exposed to the "tender mercies of the wicked" those who are sorest need of the ægis of the law.

Seduction is in most States a civil offense, laying the guilty party liable to damges, and I find no other State that makes the betrayal of a woman less than 21 ears of age, under promise of marriage, a well-defined penitentiary offense. Colodo, of this group of Western States, comes the nearest to it, but this limits the age f protection to 16 years.

Wyoming stands alone in considering the male and female habitues of houses of rostitution as guilty of the same offense, but the man receives a double punishment, eing liable to a fine of $100 and imprisonment for sixty days, while the woman is able only to a fine of $50 and imprisonment for thirty days.

The constitution of Wyoming clearly marks the progressive thought of the Comonwealth, and is a magnificent instrument even aside from the woman suffrage lause. It embodies unique provisions in the line of education, prevention of crime, nd reformation that are the exponent of maternal as well as paternal thought in overnment. No money can be appropriated by the legislature to religious or secarian uses. The rights of labor are recognized. Perpetuities and monopolies are orever prohibited. Two provisions preeminently mark the influence of woman's ossession of political power: An educational qualification is found in the suffrage lause and a provision that in payment for labor for the State there shall be no difrence in wages because of sex.

That all this wise legislation has been enacted by men only shows that the good nfluence of women in politics will not be limited to direct results, but will quicken nd inspire men to a higher standard of thought and action as they become truly he representatives of women in the legislative halls.

It thus appearing that the twenty-five years of woman suffrage have been satisactory to the citizens of Wyoming; that they have conduced to good order in the lections and to the purity of politics; that the educational system is improved and hat teachers are paid without regard to sex; that Wyoming stands alone in showng a decreased proportion of crime and divorce, and that it has elevated the peronal character of both sexes, why should any State longer delay or fear to enfranhise its women? The women of other States are as ready for the ballot as were the omen of Wyoming, and will prove as intelligent, as virtuous, as patriotic. Will he citizen of any State dare deny it? (CLARA BEWICK COLBY.)

EMARKS OF MRS. JEANNETTE SCHOULER FRENCH, OF RHODE ISLAND.

Mrs. JEANNETTE SCHOULER FRENCH, of Rhode Island, was the ext speaker. She said:

Mr. CHAIRMAN AND GENTLEMEN OF THE COMMITTEE: I desire to ecure woman suffrage by any honorable method. Both justice and xpediency demand it. Many of the questions of the hour are indusrial and social in their character and appeal strongly to women. I am ne of the representatives of the Rhode Island Woman Suffrage Assoiation. I am happy to tell you that we have a strong support outside ur own ranks. The honorable gentleman, by one party regarded as overnor of the State, has recommended in his message that woman

suffrage be considered in a businesslike and statesmanlike manner. We have lately made an imperfect canvass of some portions of our State, and the result is most gratifying.

In my own city, Pawtucket, the mayor would like, if possible, to secure municipal suffrage to taxpaying women under our city charter. An ex-mayor of the opposite party is tired of waiting for woman suffrage. We have many clergymen and lawyers and business men in our ranks. The superintendent of our very excellent schools asked the privilege of declaring himself in our favor.

Much of this increase in public sentiment is probably due to the laws that have lately been enacted. In 1892 a law was passed giving to married women the power to sell their own personal property without the consent of their husbands. This law was suggested by brokers.

In July, 1893, a law went into force giving to married women the power to make legal contracts and making their property liable for their debts.

Another most humane law makes it obligatory upon women in each city to nominate police matrons.

We have more women than men enrolled as woman suffragists. The attitude of Rhode Island women to-day is similar to the attitude of unenfranchised Rhode Island men previous to the year 1846. You will remember that previous to that time only the older sons of Rhode Island families possessed the elective franchise. Some of the younger sons protested strongly against their political servitude. They petitioned, as we petitioned, with varying results. At length, driven to desperation, they took up arms against the State. Some of the younger sons did not protest. They had all the rights they wished. Perhaps they were treated by their elders as a minister has said wives should be treated by their husbands, with such kindness that their subjection was not only endurable but pleasant.

I do not think that our women will take up arms or disturb the peace of our State, but they desire political enfranchisement and ask you to remember that the United States has guaranteed to every State a republican form of government.

REMARKS OF MRS. ABBY LEE PEASELEY, OF MAINE.

The next speaker was Mrs. ABBY LEE PEASELEY, of Maine. She said:

Mr. CHAIRMAN AND GENTLEMEN OF THE COMMITTEE: In our State we have long been in sympathy with the women's suffrage movement. Our legislature has been very favorable to us. Our house of representatives at its last meeting gave to us municipal suffrage by a handsome majority. The senate by a small majority defeated us. We have been told by those who are interested in our movement that we shall meet with success; that if we had asked for the school suffrage a few years ago we should have obtained it, but we had asked for the municipal suffrage. We believe that with suffrage we can better protect our free institutions, better protect our civil and religious liberties. And I thought as I saw these little boys in this room that I would plead for the mothers—the women of Maine and the women of the nation—that they may have the ballot placed in their hands to protect their sons from the dangers that surround them.

Only two arguments have been presented in Maine against woman suffrage. One is the danger from the foreign population which has

been coming into our State from the Canadian border at the rate of a thousand last year; and it has been said that we should have so many women of that foreign population desiring to vote that it would be better for us not to have suffrage. But in the educational test amendment which was proposed there last year we have met that point, and we hope that through that the women who are coming to us from Canada will receive the education which shall fit them to vote intelligently.

The voting of women in Boston has been referred to here, and we are asked, regarding that, why it is that to-day we have not had so many women voting as in the past. The reason, I think, is the same as that which has kept men from voting. Somebody has said that three miles of brownstone front in Boston was, at the time of an important election, represented by only 28 votes. But woman has ever been ready at the crucial times in the history of the nation to stand by its liberties and to stand by its institutions. We feel to-day the responsibility resting upon us as citizens; but as citizens enfranchised we shall feel it to a greater degree, and we shall stand with you to defend our homes and to defend our loved land. We believe that in Maine we shall soon have the privilege of the ballot, and in our Senator, Mr. Frye, and in our honored Representative, Mr. Dingley, we feel that we have strong allies. We thank you for your attention, and we hope to have from you a favorable presentation of the subject.

REMARKS OF MRS. AVERY.

Mrs. R. F. AVERY, of Somerton, Pa., said:

I desire to say a word in explanation of our representation here. We have had ten ladies presenting the subject in its various phases; but that is not because we had only ten States represented in our convention. It is because of an "embarrassment of riches" and of the draft made upon us by the House committee giving us a hearing at this same hour. And now I have the pleasure of presenting, to close this hearing, our vice-president-at-large of the National Women's Suffrage Association, who does not represent any one State (although she comes from my own State, Pennsylvania), but represents the nation, Rev. Anna Shaw.

REMARKS OF REV. ANNA SHAW.

Rev. ANNA SHAW, of Pennsylvania, said:

Mr. CHAIRMAN AND GENTLEMEN OF THE COMMITTEE: I have not been present during the whole sitting and therefore do not know what points have been brought up before this body. I wish to impress one thought which oftentimes seems to me to be overlooked; that is, the fact that woman suffrage is no longer a theory, but is a fact in many places and in many parts of the world. Woman suffrage is a fact in England and in New Zealand. The reports from New Zealand have been exceedingly fine in reference to the moral influence of women at the polls. We have had facts from Wyoming, and have had them from different parts of the Union on restricted suffrage, such as school suffrage, so that we have abundance of facts; and while, so far as we have been able to gather these facts, they show that women have not voted in so large numbers as some people thought they should, they

also show that wherever they have voted it has been for the public good.

Women are not so partisan as men. Perhaps if we were more partisan, and if political parties could count upon us more and be more assured of what we should do when we did vote, we might not have such a hard time in getting the suffrage. But they can not always count upon us. Women have voted largely for the men who represent the highest and best morally, and their influence has been for the good order of the community and for the best interests of the home and the family. This, I believe, will be largely the influence of women in politics, not so much that she will discuss the questions which have been agitating your body, on the lines of tariff and silver and finance. I do not suppose that she would know any more about them than men do. But so far as the questions are concerned which have to do with the moral order of society, women, it seems to me, have always given these duties their best thought, and have been always willing to sacrifice themselves in their best interests.

Therefore we claim that, having had so many facts—all, as a rule, favorable—the propriety of granting woman suffrage is proved. Even Mr. Gladstone, although he opposes a further extension of suffrage in England because it would interfere with some of his measures, says that woman's suffrage so far has always been a benefit and never a harm. Now it seems to me that if, so far, suffrage has been always a benefit and never a harm, it is absurd to say that, if it be extended farther, it will be a harm and not a benefit.

The other argument which we have all to meet, over and over again, is the attitude of women themselves. It is often said by gentlemen that the best women whom they know do not want suffrage. I know very good, excellent women who do not want what is good for them. I know very many excellent men who do not want what is good for them. But that is not the point. The point is whether they ought to have it. It is not a question whether women want to exercise the right to vote; but the question is whether they ought to exercise it. It is the right of the state and of the nation to demand that women shall give to it the very best of their life. The state has no claim upon men that she does not have upon women; and therefore if women can give to the state anything that is good and helpful it is their duty to give it.

It is very remarkable that the women who are supposed in time of peace not to be able to do anything for their country are the people on whom the country has relied so much in time of disturbance and disorder. We have never failed when it was a question of patriotism and of national life. Take the great cities of the country that are so badly mismanaged and you find organizations of women banded together not to do harm to the city or to put forth temptations that degrade and drag down its inhabitants, but to secure clean streets and to do the best good they can. Take New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, and other cities, and you find women banded together for that purpose. I believe that it is much better for us to be interested in good sewerage, good water supply, good air, and good moral surroundings than to be interested in foreign missions which are not of quite as close interest to us as the conditions which surround our own homes.

As to suffrage taking up women's time and putting upon us responsibilities, I believe that it will be much easier for women of a city to go to the polls on election day and vote for the men who will see that these things are brought into the life of the city to make for it good health, than for them to take the extra work of nursing children suffering from

diphtheria and scarlet fever. It is much easier to vote for a good condition of the town than to take care of the bad condition. We have here a lady who was elected to the school board of Quincy, Mass. She went to work at a certain school. She asked the privilege of doing so, simply because the children who attended that school were so unhealthy, and so many of them died. The disease seemed to be of the worst character. The discoveries that she made in the building were enough to shock any good housekeeper. She went to work, cleaned the house from top to bottom, and found in the cellar a sunken tub into which had been dripping water from leaks until the entire tub had rotted away and the stench had permeated the whole building. The children were dying by the score. She went to work and did the general house-cleaning of that school. And I submit to you she was much better adapted to it than any man in the city of Quincy; and the work was certainly not an added burden to the city of Quincy, but a great relief.

I believe that we need better housekeeping in the nation, better housekeeping in the state, and better housekeeping in the city. We are asking you for this change. This change has always been for the best good of the people. If we did not believe it to be good we would not press our request so strongly. We ask that the women may have a voice in helping to make the laws which they obey, and may have some influence in the councils that affect their own homes.

I should like to ask you, gentlemen, to look out and see if the country does not need a change. The change that we ask can not be hurtful, and would certainly be beneficial. The result of woman's enfranchisement would be, I believe, beneficial. That has been the result of every extension of suffrage given to the people, and we believe that in this case greater good would come, because to no class of people of the country has the right of suffrage been extended better fitted to accept it and to use it wisely than the women of the country. We have now open colleges; we have large control of property and business affairs; we have large opportunitics given to us by the business pursuits which we have been permitted to enter, and in this way we have been educated for the duties and responsibilities of citizenship. When, at first, women asked for the ballot it was said, "You women are not educated; you can not understand it; you have no money, and nothing at stake." We said, "Very true." We undertook to be educated, and are educated. We undertook to get money, and are getting it, therefore there can be no objection to woman suffrage on the ground of lack of interest or lack of intellectual ability.

Believing it to be in accordance with the interests of the country we make this request; and we beg that you will give the matter on which we are addressing you this morning a speedy and favorable consideration; because your report, while it may not be adopted in the Senate or in the House, will be a help to us in those portions of the world where we are securing fractional suffrage. There are large numbers of women who do not believe in accepting this small bit of suffrage. But some of us do believe in taking what we can get, with the purpose of getting all that belongs to us. I have the privilege in Massachusetts of voting for school committees, and I have also had the privilege of escorting a gentleman from the poorhouse to the polls. He could vote not only for the school committee but for the school appropriation; while we women can only vote for the members of the school committee but not for the appropriation. All over the country you can see this injustice.

While interested in what Mrs. Colby said as to the effect of the picture which she described, I should not feel badly if gentlemen were haunted all their lives by the picture until it was obliterated from the picture itself and borne into the minds of men. Gentlemen, we do not like the society you give us. We prefer the society of intelligent men, believing that intelligent men and intelligent women, law-abiding men and law-abiding women, working together for the common country, can do infinitely more than men can do alone, while women have to be associated with male idiots and male lunatics. We therefore ask that justice, which should have been ours from the beginning, may be extended to us and that we may know what it is in this country to be a free people, where all the people have equal rights.

REMARKS OF MRS. SARA WINTHROP SMITH.

Mrs. SARA WINTHROP SMITH, of Connecticut, also submitted in her own behalf the following statement:

Mr. CHAIRMAN AND GENTLEMEN OF THE COMMITTEE: There has been presented in the two Houses of Congress the following petition:

A PETITION TO THE SENATE AND HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES OF THE UNITED STATES IN CONGRESS ASSEMBLED.

Whereas I, Sara Winthrop Smith, a native-born citizen of the United States, over twenty-one years of age, and a legal resident of the town of Seymour, New Haven County, Connecticut, made application, according to law, to the board of registrars of voters of the town wherein I reside that my name be placed upon the list of "electors to be made" within the dates provided for registration prior to the holding of the national election of November, 1892, declaring my intention to vote for the member of Congress representing my district, under the protection of section 2, article 1, United States Constitution, which says:

SEC. 2, ART. I. "The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislature."

And whereas the said board of registrars, having duly considered my application, notified me that my name had been refused place on said list of "electors to be made" on the ground that I was "a woman."

Therefore I, the said Sara Winthrop Smith, most earnestly petition your honorable body to declare by a legal enactment my right, in spite of the fact of my being "a woman," to vote for members of Congress in the Congressional district where I reside, if possessed of the qualifications required by law. I deny the right of the State of Connecticut to divide "THE PEOPLE" into two halves, choosing Congressmen from one-half to the entire exclusion of the other half—to be voted for by the same half, thus ignoring the equal right of the other half to direct representation in a government which both halves are equally taxed to support. And I ask that this petition with the accompanying memorial and suggested form for a bill be read in full and duly entered upon the records of your honorable body.

MEMORIAL.

Whereas the right to choose members of the House of Representatives is by the Constitution of the United States vested "in the people of the several States," without distinction of sex; and

Whereas the Supreme Court of the United States has declared that the exercise of the right of national suffrage is of supreme importance to the National Government and that its exercise should be kept free and pure by Congressional enactment wherever that is necessary; and

Whereas the Supreme Court of the United States has further declared that "The States, in prescribing the qualifications for the most numerous branch of their own legislatures, do not do so with reference to the election of members of Congress, nor can they prescribe the qualifications for this *eo nomine*" (Ex parte Yarbrough, 110 U. S. R., decided March 2, 1884):

Therefore I, the said Sara Winthrop Smith, ask of your honorable body the introduction of the following bill:

A BILL to secure to all citizens of the United States the right to vote at certain elections without distinction of sex, and for other purposes.

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled,* That all citizens of the United States, having the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of any State or Territorial legislature, shall be entitled and allowed to vote at any election for Representatives or Delegate in the Congress of the United States without distinction of sex, any constitution, law, custom, usage, or regulation of any State or Territory, or by or under its authority, to the contrary notwithstanding.

SEC. 2. This act shall take effect and be in force from and after its passage.

Mr. CHAIRMAN AND GENTLEMEN: Section 2, Article I, United States Constitution, reads as follows:

Each House shall be the judge of its own elections, returns, and qualifications of its members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business, etc.

Justice Strong, 12 Wall., 532, 533, says:

No single power is the ultimate end for which the Constitution was adopted. It may in a very proper sense be treated as a means for the accomplishment of a subordinate object. * * * Its subordinate objects are instruments for the paramount object which was to establish a government, sovereign within its sphere, with capability of self-preservation.

Your petitioner, Sara Winthrop Smith, a native-born citizen of the United States and a legal resident of the State of Connecticut, county of New Haven, town of Seymour, hereby declares that the exercise of her right of national suffrage as an individual citizen, as one of "the people," is not repugnant to the Constitution of the United States.

Section 2, Article I, United States Constitution, reads as follows:

The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislature.

The two clauses of this section are obviously intended to be read together. When so read what is their meaning?

It is a rule of construction that every phrase and, so far as possible, every word shall have a meaning. The first clause says that the members of the National House of Representatives shall be chosen "by the people of the several States, and the electors shall have," etc.

If this first clause had read "shall be chosen from the several States," or even "from among the people of the several States," there would follow an effect which would make the first clause mean exactly the same as the second clause.

But there is an essential point in the first clause which requires that the members of the National House of Representatives shall be chosen "by the people." This is a recognition of the principle of popular sovereignty, upon which our Government is founded. And the requirement that the members of the National House of Representatives be chosen "by the people" is one mode in which "a republican form of government" is to be "guaranteed" to "every State in this Union."

Section 4, Article IV, United States Constitution:

The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government, etc.

The inquiry will now be: Does the word "people" in the first clause of section 2, Article I, include women?

I answer, yes. The word "people" in the Constitution of the United States includes women in the following places:

First. In the preamble of the United States Constitution:

We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

Second. In the first amendment:

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

Third. In the second amendment:

A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

In comment upon this section, Judge Story says:

The right of the citizens to keep and bear arms has justly been considered as the palladium of the liberties of a republic.

In reference to this, Judge Waite says:

For instance, a man is to go through an unfrequented street of a large city in the evening. He has a right to carry a weapon for self-defense while going through that street. He has even a right to carry a rifle or shotgun upon his shoulder for that purpose—if the street is particularly dangerous. This right is guaranteed to him by the constitution of his country. Now, suppose a woman has occasion to go through the same street in the evening, will it be said that she has no right to carry a weapon, but must be subjected to the danger of insult and attack without any means of self-defense, simply because she is a woman? The proposition can not be entertained for a moment. Therefore, jurists, commenting upon this amendment, have treated it as asserting a right common to the citizens at large.

Fourth. In the fourth amendment:

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects against unreasonable searches and seizures shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched and the persons and things to be seized.

Can there be any doubt as to the applicability of this section to women? Is the house of a male householder protected, while that of a widow may be violated with impunity?

Fifth. In the ninth amendment:

The enumeration of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

Sixth. In the tenth amendment:

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively or to the people.

If the word "people" applies equally to men and women in these quoted sections of the United States Constitution, why does it not apply to women as well as men in the section under consideration? In proof of this position I quote the following:

A word repeatedly used in a statute will bear the same meaning throughout the statute unless it is apparent that another meaning is intended. (Pitte *v.* Shipley, 46 Cal., 154.)

In the construction of constitutions, provisions, and statutes, the question is, not what was the intention of the framers, but what is the meaning of the words they have used. A constitution does not derive its force from the convention which framed it, but from the people who ratified it. The intent to be arrived at is that of the people and this is found only in the words of the text. (Following 50 Ill., 86; 1875, Beardstone *v.* Virginia; 76 Ill., 34; Hawkins *v.* Carroll Co., 50 Miss., 735.)

In reference to one sentence in the last decision, i. e., "A constitution does not derive its force from the convention which framed it, but from

the people who ratified it," the question might be asked: "Did representatives elected by the votes of women as well as men ratify the Constitution of the United States?"

I answer "yes," and I refer you to the fact that women voted in several of the colonies under the property qualification. The National Government committed itself to woman suffrage when it was first instituted. The right of women to vote began with the first pronunciamento against the tyranny of England. It is as firmly placed in the fundamental laws of our country as is the same right of men. By recognizing the admission of New Jersey into the Federal compact, whose representatives were elected in part by the votes of women, this Republic was committed to woman suffrage. It still further pledged its support when it accepted the votes of New Jersey in the constitutional convention which framed the United States Constitution, and when, in the ratification of that instrument it counted the votes of the legislature of New Jersey, whose representatives were sent up by the votes of both men and women. The ballots of women in the State of New Jersey were also received and counted at three Presidential elections after the adoption of the United States Constitution.

We have seen that women are included in the word "people;" that women as well as men voted for delegated representatives who ratified the United States Constitution, and thus made that instrument "the supreme law of the land." We shall also find that women are counted equally with men in the enumeration upon which the apportionment is made, distinguished from the colored people and the Indians not paying taxes. Therefore it must be conceded that in §1, section 2, of Article I, United States Constitution, the right of women, as a part of the people, to vote for members of the National House of Representatives is securely placed. If it had been intended that the "electors for the most numerous branch of the State legislatures" and the electors for members of the National House of Representatives should always be necessarily the same and could never possibly be different, the section would have been so worded as to imply that fact and to make known that intention. On the contrary, the very wording of the section shows by implication that there may be a class of national electors who are not State electors. Instead of saying that these shall be the same, the section says that the national electors shall have the same qualifications requisite for the State electors. By this very wording the framers of the Constitution of the United States reserved the right to extend the suffrage should the States exceed their right to regulate it by making some distinction which was not a "qualification." (A qualification is something which may be required, like a term of residence or a certain age; sex is an unchangeable fact, like color of eyes or contour of features peculiar to an individual type. Therefore sex can never be a "qualification.")

To test the matter, suppose that the State of Connecticut enacted a law which declared that only male persons over the age of 40 years should be electors of "the most numerous branch of the State legislature," would the General Government be bound by this enactment and would Congress have no power under this section of the Constitution to secure protection for the citizens thus disfranchised to vote for members of the National House of Representatives. Would not Congress and the U. S. Supreme Court hold that such a provision were not a "qualification," properly speaking, which a State legislature had a right to make? Would it not at once be decided that the State of Connecticut had transcended her authority? Any State action which

denies "immunity from inequality of legal protection" is in conflict with the United States Constitution. Chief Justice Waite said (92 U. S., 217): "Rights and immunities created by and dependent upon the Constitution of the United States can be protected by Congress."

The right of national suffrage is established in the National Constitution for all the people or citizens. Women are citizens; women form a part of the people; therefore women as well as men are protected in their right of suffrage by section 2, Article I, United States Constitution, which reads as follows:

> The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year BY THE PEOPLE of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislature.

By the principles adopted at the very foundation of our Government, the right of suffrage was vested in the citizenship of the United States. This idea is not necessarily in conflict with the present political atmosphere (or the present theory of government), nor is it in conflict with the political atmosphere which prevailed yesterday. In brief, it is not a question of the rights of State governments at all, nor even the rights of Congress. But it is a question of the rights of the people. The United States Constitution declares that "All persons born or naturalized in the United States are citizens of the United States," (first); "and" (then) "citizens of the States wherein they reside." And it further expressly declares that "No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of the citizens of the United States, nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws."

Therefore such interpretation of provisions in the several State constitutions which would exclude woman-citizens of the United States from the elective franchise on account of sex violates alike the spirit and letter of the United States Constitution. Under all the fundamental laws of our Republic, citizenship, subject to proper qualifications (for the protection of the people), is the only true basis for the ballot, and our naturalization laws alone would prove this. Such laws are expressly withheld from the States, and, as the States would clearly have no right to deprive naturalized citizens of the right to vote (among whom women are definitely included), still more clearly have the States no right to deprive native-born women citizens of this privilege. Thomas Jefferson said: "The God who gave us life gave us liberty at the same time; the hand of force may destroy but can not disjoin them."

Mr. Madison said, in comment upon sec. 2, Art. I, of the United States Constitution:

> The definition of the right of suffrage is very justly regarded as a fundamental article of Republican government. It was incumbent on the convention (1787) to define and establish this right in the Constitution. To have left it open for the occasional regulation of the Congress would have been improper, for the reason just mentioned. To have submitted it to the legislative discrimination of the States would have been improper for the same reason, and for the additional reason that it would have rendered too dependent upon the State governments that branch of the Federal Government which ought to be dependent on the people alone.

The United States, as such, came into existence as a protest against the unjust and oppressive acts of a political superior—the Parliament of Great Britain. They began to exist, moreover, when the words "liberty," "equality," "fraternity," were throbbing into a terrible life. *In choosing* their own political organization, therefore, the people of

the American States resolved to have a government in which political superiors should have no place—in which the ruled should be also, and as such, the rulers—i. e., the people, should be the sovereigns. The fundamental principles of this Government were tersely yet comprehensively laid down in the Declaration of Independence, thus:

We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men were created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that to secure these rights governments were instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or to abolish it, and to institute a new government.

Recall the opening words of the United States Constitution:

We, the people of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquility, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and to our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

Justice, liberty, the general welfare, these are the great objects of the Constitution. This opening sentence furnishes the commanding rule by which the entire Constitution is to be interpreted. Of it, Judge Story says, that it was not intended to provide merely for the exigencies of a few years, but was to endure through a lapse of ages. In a government like ours the right to vote precedes the election of both national and State legislatures. It also precedes the adoption of national and State constitutions. Without voters, no laws can be legally or constitutionally adopted. There has been much said about the dangers of a centralized government—a centralized despotism; but the only centralized despotism really existent to-day is the rule of men over women without their consent. If the right of suffrage exist at all it is an individual right and must be exercised by individuals. It is not a right which belongs to a class or to a sex. Do men vote by classes? Are the most sacred rights of the people in the gift of a privileged class? If women citizens of the United States have the right to a voice in this Government, then the dignity of our position should be sustained?

If we concede that the State governments may confer, as a gift, the most sacred right of citizenship, then, indeed, is our humiliation complete; we are to beg for favors where we should demand as a right. What woman of us all will stoop to conquer? None I hope, in the name of the higher womanhood which should demand the recognition of its higher needs. Our task is to lift a prone humanity into a realization of the dignity of human life. The dignity of the human being is that each one is both the doer and the judge of his own actions. The right of suffrage is and makes the difference between disfranchisement, the punishment inflicted upon felons, and enfranchisement, the recognition of the personality as sacred. It is the difference between a government of the people by the people, for the people and a government of the people, by an oligarchy, for an oligarchy.

Yet, behind all misinterpretation and injustice born of an inordinate love of power, lie—still safe—the magnificent institutions which have made our country known the world over as "The Land of the Free!"

The only restriction placed upon the States by the United States Constitution (if indeed that can be called a restriction which was intended to protect the body of the people) is that the States shall not exchange republican for anti-republican constitutions (sec. 4, Art. IV) a restriction which can not be called a grievance, since it declares to the people of every State that the National Government (i. e., the governments of

all the States as represented in the nation) will protect the citizens of any State from an invasion of their rights by such men as they (the citizens) may have chosen to guard their interests within their State.

Mr. Justice Wilson, of the U. S. Supreme Court (Chisholm *v.* Georgia) said in 1793:

> Let a State be considered as subordinate to the people, but let everything else be subordinate to the State.

And further said:

> Laws derived from the pure source of equality and justice must be founded on the consent of those whose obedience they require.

Chief-Justice Jay said, in the same case:

> It will be sufficient to observe briefly that the sovereigns in Europe, and particularly in England, exist on feudal principles. That system considers the prince as the sovereign and the people as his subjects. No such ideas obtain here; at the revolution the sovereignty devolved upon the people, and they are truly the sovereigns of the country, but they are sovereigns without subjects, and have none to govern but themselves; the citizens of America are equal as fellow-citizens and as joint-tenants in the sovereignty.

It will be remembered by every student of constitutional history that, when the original convention of State delegates met at Philadelphia in 1787, various plans were suggested for the reformation of that defective system of government known as the Articles of Confederation. Among these plans were there solutions of Governor Randolph, of Virginia. It was he who proposed the great idea "that a National Government ought to be established consisting of a supreme legislative, executive and judiciary." This proposition developed, in the course of debate, into the Constitution of the United States.

The sixteenth resolution read:

> *Resolved*, That a republican constitution and its existing laws ought to be guaranteed to each State by the United States.

Compare section 4 of Article IV, United States Constitution.

The seventh resolution read:

> *Resolved*, That the right of suffrage in the first branch of the National Legislature ought not to be according to the rule established in the Articles of Confederation, but according to some equitable ratio of representation; namely, in proportion to the whole number of white and other free citizens and inhabitants of every age, sex, and condition, including those bound in servitude for a term of years and three-fifths of all other persons not comprehended in the foregoing description, except Indians not paying taxes in each State.

Compare § 3, section 2, Article I, United States Constitution:

> Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound in service for a term of years and, excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons, etc.

We here find women included in the basis of representation and the slaves partially excluded. What does this prove? Evidently that the enslavement and disfranchisement of the colored race was contemplated and actually recognized by the United States Constitution as well as in the action taken upon the adoption of the Declaration of Independence, a majority of one vote striking out the clause which pleaded for the freedom of that subjected class. This made the amendment of the United States Constitution a necessity before the colored people could vote. On the other hand, the disfranchisement of women was not seriously considered for a moment.

James Madison, construing this article of the United States Constitution said (Federalist, No. 54):

It is not contended that the number of people in each State ought not to be the standard for regulating the proportion of those who are to represent the people of each State. The establishment of this same rule for apportionment of taxes will probably be as little contested, though the rule itself, in this case, is by no means founded on the same principle. In the former cass the rule is understood to refer to the personal rights of the people with which it has a natural and universal connection. In the latter it has reference to the proportion of wealth of which it is in no case a precise measure, and in ordinary cases a very unfit one. But, notwithstanding the imperfection of the rule as applied to the relative wealth and contributions of the States, it is evidently the least exceptionable among the practicable rules, and has too recently obtained the general sanction of America, not to have found a ready preference with the convention. All this is admitted, it will perhaps be said; but does it follow from an admission of numbers for the measure of representation, or of slaves combined with free citizens, as a ratio of taxation that slaves ought to be included in the numerical ratio of representation? Slaves are considered as property, not as persons; they ought, therefore, to be comprehended in estimates of taxation which are founded on property, and to be excluded from representation which is regulated by a census of persons. The Federal Constitution therefore decides with great propriety in the case of our slaves when it views them in the mixed character of persons and property. This is, in fact, their true character. It is the character bestowed on them by the laws under which they live; and it will not be denied that these are the proper criteria; because it is only under the pretext that the laws have transformed the negroes into subjects of property, that a place is disputed them in the computation of numbers; and it is admitted that, if the laws were to restore the rights which have been taken away, the negroes could no longer be refused an equal share of representation.

Therefore, women, being counted in the enumeration upon which the apportionment is made, are entitled to direct representation in this Government.

In the face of the actual laws it can never be claimed that there was ever such general understanding or discrimination against the right of a woman citizen of the United States to vote at the time of the adoption of the United States Constitution as would justify Congress or the courts in going outside of the Constitution to determine the meaning (or the limitations) of the word "people." If this supposition were true, why was it deemed necessary to insert the word "male" into the various State constitutions? If this supposition were true, why were not women disfranchised by name—left out from the enumeration upon which the apportionment was made, and relieved from taxation, as were the enslaved classes whose rights to direct representation were expressly denied?

The fact is that universal sovereignty to-day—except in two States—only exists in our grand fundamental institutions, never in the oligarchy which has built itself up in our midst!

In the Minor *v.* Happersett case the U. S. Supreme Court knew that, in order to fulfill the wishes of the power behind it, it must ignore the high obligations of the bench to construe all law in favor of liberty. The uniform practice of the American homocracy has been in controversion of all points brought up to protect the larger liberties of the people—for the fourteenth amendment affords the only instance where citizenship was distinctly conferred by the Constitution of the United States. And we have seen the necessity for this in the fact that the enslaved classes were denied equal place in the basis of representation on the plea that, being property, they could not hold property in their own right. Neither was the Indian taxed, and he also was counted out of the basis of representation. Therefore, no amendment of the United States Constitution is or ever will be necessary to secure full protection for women citizens of the United States in their right to

vote. All that is necessary is the passage of a declaratory act b
Congress of the United States, as the agent whose duty it is,
our National Constitution, to guard and secure the chartered rig
the whole people.

Judge Hare says (Lectures on Constitutional Law, p. 78):

Congress is sovereign as regards the objects and within the limits of the Co
tion. It may use all proper and suitable means for carrying the powers co
by the Constitution into effect. The means best suited at one time may be
quate at another time; hence the need for vesting a large discretion in Co
(§ 18, Sec. VII, Art. I). * * * "Necessary and proper" are, therefore, as r
legislation, nearly if not quite synonymous, that being "necessary" which is
to the object and calculated to attain the end in view.

Chief Justice Marshall (McCulloch *v.* Md., 4 Wheat., 316) says

The powers of the Government are limited and its limits are not to be transc
But the sound construction of the Constitution must allow the National Legi
that discretion with respect to the means by which the powers it confers ar
carried into execution which will enable that body to perform the high
assigned to it in the manner most beneficial to the people. Let the end be legit
let it be within the scope of the Constitution, and all means which are approp
which are plainly adapted to that end, which are not prohibited but consisten
with the spirit of the Constitution, are constitutional.

The chairman declared the hearing closed.

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etia Mitchell	5
L. Diggs	5
Davis	6
Clay Bennett	9
ht	10
Smith	10
Bewick Colby	11
nette Schoular French	17
e Lee Peaseley	18
Avery	19
Shaw	19
Winthrop Smith	22

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 123.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARCH 19, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Claims and ordered to be printed.

The VICE-PRESIDENT presented the following

FINDINGS OF THE COURT OF CLAIMS IN THE CONGRESSIONAL CASE NO. 7864 OF JAMES C. NEWMAN, ADMINISTRATOR OF HAL W. GREEN, DECEASED, v. THE UNITED STATES.

COURT OF CLAIMS, CLERK'S OFFICE,
Washington, March 14, 1894.

SIR: Pursuant to the order of the court I transmit herewith a certified copy of the findings of the court filed in the aforesaid cause, which case was referred to this court by the resolution of the Senate of the United States dated June 12, 1890.

I am, very respectfully, yours, etc.,

JOHN RANDOLPH,
Assistant Clerk Court of Claims.

Hon. ADLAI E. STEVENSON,
President of the Senate.

[Court of Claims. Congressional case No. 7864. James C. Newman, administrator of Hal W. Green deceased, v. The United States.]

STATEMENT OF CASE.

The claim in the above-entitled case for supplies or stores alleged to have been taken by or furnished to the military forces of the United States for their use during the late war for the suppression of the rebellion was transmitted to the court by a resolution of the Senate dated June 12, 1890.

This case was brought to a hearing on its merits on the 20th day February, 1894.

Gilbert Moyers, esq., appeared for the claimant, and the Attorney-General, by James H. Nixon, esq., his assistant and under his direction, appeared for the defense and protection of the interests of the United States.

The claimant in his petition makes the following allegations:

That at different times during the late war of the rebellion the U. S. forces by proper authority, in Warren County, Miss., took from him quartermaster stores and commissary supplies of the value of $7,610 and appropriated the same to the use of the U. S. Army, as follows:

12 mules, at $150 each	$1,800.00
6 horses, at $150 each	900.00
500 bushels of corn, at $1 per bushel	500.00
100 hogs, at $10 each	1,000.00
18 cows and calves, at $40 each	720.00
16 oxen, at $40 each	640.00
20 dry cattle, at $15 each	300.00
3 wagons, worth	250.00
3 miles fencing, 600 cords of wood, at $2.50 per cord	1,500.00
Aggregating in value	7,610.00

The claim, as referred to the court originally, was, "James C. Newman, administrator of Hal. W. Green, deceased," and numbered 153.

The case thus presented to the court was dismissed for want of jurisdiction, there being no proof of the loyalty of the administrator. Subsequently, the case was presented to Congress by bill, in both the Senate and House of Representatives, and on June 12, 1890, the Senate adopted the following resolution:

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES,
June 12, 1890.

Resolved by the Senate of the United States, That the bill (S. 985) for the relief of James C. Newman, administrator, with the papers, vouchers, proofs, and documents pertaining to the claim of said Newman, referred to in said bill, be transmitted to the Court of Claims of the United States for the findings of fact therein upon the following points:

(1) Whether the estate of the said Hal. W. Green, late of Vicksburg, Miss., deceased, has been settled, excepting the claim included in said bill, so that any amount that may be recovered therefrom will inure to the benefit of the heirs of such intestate, and, if so, who are his heirs, and what was the age of each at the commencement of the late war, in the year A. D. 1861?

(2) What property, if any, was taken from the said James C. Newman, administrator, belonging to the estate of the said Hal. W. Green, and used by the United States during the late war, and what was the value of such property in lawful money at the time it was taken?

Attest: ANSON G. MCCOOK,
Secretary.

Upon the claim being so transmitted to the court by resolution of the Senate it was numbered 7864 Congressional.

The court, upon the evidence and after considering the briefs and arguments of counsel on both sides, make the following

FINDINGS OF FACT.

I.

The estate of said Hal. W. Green, who died in 1858, has been settled, except this claim, and any amount to be recovered therefrom will, in the opinion of this court, inure to the benefit of the heirs of such intestate.

The following are the names of the heirs of said Green and the age of each at the commencement of the late war, in the year 1861:

Mary L. Green (now Mrs. Mary L. Laferre), aged 8 years in 1861.
Jennie G. Green (now Mrs. Jennie G. Bell), aged 6 years in 1861.
Thomas Jefferson Green, aged 4 years in 1861.
Hal. W. Green, who was in his third year in 1861.
Said Green also left a widow, who has since remarried.

II.

There were taken from said James C. Newman, administrator of Hal. W. Green, during the late war, by the military forces of the United States and appropriated to Army use, stores and supplies of the character hereinabove indicated, then reasonably worth the sum of $3,425.

BY THE COURT.

Filed March 12, 1894.
A true copy.
Test this 14th day of March, A. D. 1894.
[SEAL.]

JOHN RANDOLPH,
Assistant Clerk Court of Claims.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 124.

[This volume is supplemental to Senate Mis. Docs. Nos. 35 and 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session, which see.]

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARCH 21, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Finance and ordered to be printed.

Mr. MITCHELL, of Oregon, presented the following:

APPEAL OF THE NATIONAL WOOLGROWERS' ASSOCIATION, OF WOOL MERCHANTS, AND OTHERS, TO THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES, NOT TO PLACE WOOL ON THE FREE LIST, BUT TO RETAIN THE PRESENT DUTIES.

As this document is supplementary to U. S. Senate Mis. Docs. Nos. 35 and 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session, it is deemed proper to note here errors therein, as follows:

ERRATA.—*In U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session.*

1. On page 22 a reference is made to "Senate Ex. Doc. No. 1, Fifty-third Congress, *first* session." This is the title as printed. It was at the President's called session of the Senate and was laid before the Senate March 27, 1893.
2. On page 94 the name of "Peter Pampell" is improperly there.

ERRATA.—*In U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session.*

1. On page 1, in line 9 from the bottom, the figures "$85,000,000" should read "$25,000,000," or what is the same in *effect* and better, and conveys the meaning more fully, strike out the word "*besides*" and insert the word "including," leaving the figures $85,000.000 to remain. This will be seen by reference to page 22.
2. On page 38 a reference is made to "Senate Ex. Doc. No. 1, Fifty-third Congress, *first* session," and so the document is printed. The session was the special session called in March by the President, and the document was "Laid on the table and ordered to be printed" March 27, 1893.
3. The table of wool product by States on page 56 was taken from an official document, but by some means errors occur in the last three columns.

INTRODUCTION—EXPLANATORY.

THE REASONS FOR PRESENTING TO THE HONORABLE THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES THIS APPEAL.

On the 8th of February, 1894, there was presented in the Senate the memorial of the National Woolgrowers' Association, to the Senate of the United States, asking that no reduction shall be made of the duties on wool or woolen goods.

This and the accompanying papers are found in U. S. Senate Mis. Doc., No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session.

The memorial commences with the following statements:

A meeting of the National Woolgrowers' Association was called to assemble at Washington, D. C., February 6, with a view to present to the Committee on Finance of the Senate arguments in opposition to those provisions of the so-called Wilson tariff bill, which passed the House of Representatives on February 1, proposing to place wools on the free list and to reduce duties on woolen goods.

The request of the association was presented on the 6th instant to the honorable chairman of the Committee on Finance for an opportunity to be heard in argument, but it was declined, with the information, however, that written communications would be duly considered.

This memorial is accordingly presented to the Senate.

The following is the published report of the proceedings of the association preparatory to the presentation of the request, the resolutions, and the result:

THE WOOLGROWERS.

MEETING OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION IN WASHINGTON.

The meeting of the National Woolgrowers' Association, called to attempt to defeat the free wool provisions of the Wilson tariff bill, began Tuesday, February 6, 1894, in Washington, D. C. Immediately after the opening of the meeting a committee was appointed to draw up a petition addressed to the Committee on Finance of the Senate asking for an oral hearing on the wool schedules of the Wilson tariff bill. A recess was then taken pending the report of the committee.

Hon. Wm. Lawrence, of Ohio, presided. Among the members of the association already here are: Ex U. S. Senator, ex-Governor Francis E. Warren, of Wyoming; David Harpster and Dwight Fuller, of Harpster, Ohio; Wm. H. Heriott, of Federal, Pa., president of the Pennsylvania Woolgrowers' Association; Capt. A. E. Shepard, of Austin, Tex.; Hon. J. A. McConnell, of Elk Grove, Cal.; W. H. Baker, of Portland, Oreg.; A. G. Beale, of San Francisco, and Frank J. Hegart, of Idaho, secretary *pro tem.* of the association.

The following preamble and resolution were presented to Chairman Voorhees, of the Senate Committee on Finance, by a delegation of the National Woolgrowers' Association:

"Whereas the National Woolgrowers' Association, representing an industry in which are deeply interested and engaged 4,000,000 people of the United States, owning and caring for 47,000,000 sheep, with a directly invested capital of over $200,000,000 and indirect investment of $300,000,000 more, are desirous of being orally heard in the interest of the sheep and wool industry, which it is believed is seriously threatened—even to complete annihilation—by proposed legislation—*i. e.*, the Wilson bill, so called, now in the Finance Committee of the Senate: Therefore be it

Resolved, That the association respectfully requests that a time be set apart and a date soon given in which we may appear, through a committee duly appointed, to present our cause for the consideration of the honorable Committee on Finance of the Senate."

In reply to the petition, Senator Voorhees said that the committee had determined to give no verbal hearings, and it would not be possible to make an exception in the case of the woolgrowers. He suggested that the association submit a written statement.

The members of the association will stay in this city for two weeks or more, and probably endeavor to influence Senators personally, being denied a formal hearing.

The Democratic majority of the Committee on Finance of the Senate, having considered the so-called "Wilson tariff bill" as it passed the House of Representatives on the 1st of February, 1894, reported the same back to the full committee of the Senate on the 8th day of March, 1894. As a published report says:

In the amended form, upon which the Democratic majority of that committee finally agreed after one whole month's consideration, and numerous changes of front upon all the more important subjects of taxation—

The sugar provision is as follows:

"All sugars—tank bottoms, sirups of cane juice or of beet juice, melada, concentrated melada, concrete and concentrated molasses—testing by the polariscope not above

ıhall pay a duty of 1 cent per pound, and for every additional degree or fraction degree above 80° and not 90° shown by the polariscope test shall pay one one-hun-th of 1 cent per pound additional, and above 90° and not above 96°, for every tional degree or fraction of a degree shown by the polariscope test, shall pay a of two one hundredths of a cent per pound additional, and above 96° by polar-e test shall pay a duty of $1\frac{4}{10}$ cents per pound; molasses testing not above y the polariscope shall pay a duty of 2 cents per gallon; molasses testing above ıhall pay a duty of 4 cents per gallon."

IRON, COAL, AND LEAD.

n ore, including manganiferous iron ore, also the dross of residuum from burnt tes, 40 cents per ton.
ıal is taken from the free list and made dutiable also at 40 cents a ton, and coke cents.
ıad ore, which in the Wilson bill was 15 per cent ad valorem, lead ore and lead s, three-fourths of 1 cent per pound: *Provided*, That silver ore and all other ores aining lead shall pay a duty of three-fourths of 1 cent per pound on the lead ained therein according to sample and assay at the port of entry.

WOOL AND WOOLENS.

ıW WOOL IS LEFT ON THE FREE LIST, exactly as in the Wilson bill, the ision to go into effect August, 1894. In manufactures of wool the valuations as n in the Wilson bill are stricken out, and the schedules now read as follows:
Wool of the sheep, hair of the camel, goat, alpaca, and other like animals in the of slubbing waste, roving waste, ring waste, mungo, shoddies, garnetted or carded e, carbonized noils or other waste product, any of which is composed wholly or ırt of wool, the hair of camel, goat, alpaca, and other like animals, which has improved or advanced beyond its original condition as waste by the use of ıinery or application of labor or both, and carbonized wool, shall be subject to ty of 15 per centum ad valorem.
n wool of the sheep, hair of the camel, goat, alpaca, or other like animals, in the of roving, roping or tops, 25 per centum ad valorem.
n woolens or worsted yarns, 30 per centum ad valorem.
n woolen or worsted cloths, shawls, knit fabrics, manufactures of every descrip-made wholly or in part of wool, worsted, the hair of the camel, goat, alpaca, or r animals, and any of above having India rubber as a component material, not ally provided for in this act, 35 per centum ad valorem (instead of 40 as in the on bill).
n blankets, hats of wool, and flannels, 25 per centum ad valorem; valued at more 30 cents per pound, 30 per centum ad valorem.
n women's and children's dress goods, composed wholly or in part of wool, not ally provided for in this act, 35 per centum ad valorem (instead of 40).
n clothing ready made and articles of wearing apparel of every description and ıtions of fur composed wholly or in part of wool, etc., 40 per centum ad valorem ead of 45).
n webbings, gorings, suspenders, braces, beltings, bindings, braids, etc., 35 per ım ad valorem (instead of 40).
Carpets remain unchanged.
The reductions in the duties for manufactures of wool shall take effect December 94."

TAKEN FROM THE FREE LIST.

ticles stricken from the free list are as follows:
ıpples, green, ripe, and dried, etc.; beef, mutton, and pork; bone char, suitable ıse in decolorizing sugars; bituminous and chale and coal slack or cut; coke, a fiber, floor matting manufactured from round or split straw, including Chinese ting; dates, cocoanuts, Brazil nuts, cream nuts, Gambier nuts, salted horn strips tips, iron ore, olives, green or prepared; orchids, lily of the valley, azaleas, ıs, and other plants used for forcing under glass for cut flowers or decorative oses; sausage skins, sugars, stained or painted window glass or painted glass lows, paintings and statuary in the paragraph referring to articles imported for bition by any association authorized by the United States or any State."

ADDITIONS TO THE FREE LIST.

ıe additions to the free list are as follows:
ıny cattle, horses, sheep, or other domestic animals which have strayed across order to any foreign country, or where such domestic animals have been or may

be driven across such boundary by the owner for pasturage purpose, the same may be brought back to the United States free of duty, under Treasury regulations."

The paragraph pertaining to straws, etc., for hats is changed to read as follows:

"Straw, chip, grass, palm leaf, willow, osier or rattan in the form of braids, plaits, laces, suitable for making or ornamenting hats, bonnets, and hoods; also when imported for trimming men's and boys' hats only, hat bands not exceeding 2¼ inches in width, and when cut in lengths not exceeding 37 inches; hat bindings not exceeding 1¼ inches in width and when cut in lengths not exceeding 54 inches, and hat linings composed in whole or in part of silk, satin or cotton, when cut in pieces not exceeding 12 by 16 inches or 5 by 30 inches."

Other items added are:

"Diamonds and other precious stones, rough or uncut, including miners' diamonds; cod oil, not specifically provided for in the act; medals bestowed and accepted as honorary distinctions."

To the paragraph which admits free "spermaceti whale and other fish oils of American fisheries," the committee adds, "and all fish and other products" of such fisheries.

To philosophical and scientific apparatus are added utensils, including bottles and boxes containing instruments and preparations; stained or painted window glass or stained or painted glass windows specially imported for the use of any society or institution established for religious, philosophical, scientific or literary purposes and not intended for sale are added to the free list.

To the paragraph dealing with paintings, the word "painting" is defined as follows: "And the word 'painting,' as used in this act, shall not be understood to include such as are made wholly or in part of stenciling or other mechanical process."

In defining professional books, tools of trade, etc., admitted free, this act adds a provision which declares that things admitted free under this head shall not be construed to include theatrical scenery, properties, and apparel, but such articles brought by proprietors or managers of theatrical exhibitions arriving from abroad for temporary use by them in such exhibitions, and not for any other person and not for sale, shall be admitted free of duty under such regulations as the Secretary of the Navy may prescribe.

The free admission of raw silk is specifically stated not to apply to double twisted, nor advanced in manufacture in any way.

Plows and other agricultural implements, which the House bill made free, have a provision that all the articles mentioned, when imported from any country which lays an import duty on like articles coming from the United States, shall be subject to duties under the existing law.

In the silk schedules, carded silk is changed from 25 cents per pound to 20 per cent ad valorem; thrown and spun silk from 20 to 25 per cent ad valorem; silk laces are reduced from 50 to 45 per cent.

GLASS AND GLASSWARE.

There are only four changes in the glass and glassware schedule. Plain green and colored, molded or pressed in flint and lime glassware, including bottles, vials, etc., are raised from 30 to 40 per cent ad valorem. All articles of glass, cut, engraved, painted, colored, printed, stained, decorated, silvered, or gilded, not including plate glass silvered or looking-glass plates, are raised from 25 to 40 per cent ad valorem. All glass bottles, decanters, when cut, engraved, painted, colored, and otherwise decorated, are raised from 35 to 40 per cent. Unpolished cylinder, crown, and common window glass, not exceeding 16 by 24 inches surface, 1¼ cents per pound; above that and not exceeding 24 by 30 inches surface, 1½ cents per pound; above that and not exceeding 24 by 36 inches surface, from 1⅝ to 1¾ cents per pound. All above that are 1¾ to 1⅞ cents per pound.

TOBACCO AND WHISKEY.

In tobacco the schedule of the Wilson bill levying a tax of $1 per thousand on cigarettes wrapped in paper is stricken out, and there is substituted a tax on cigars of all descriptions, including cigarettes weighing more than 3 pounds per thousand, $5 per thousand; on cigarettes wrapped in paper, $1 per thousand, and on cigarettes wrapped in tobacco, 50 cents per thousand.

Sections 2, 83, and 84 of the House bill relating to the whisky tax are stricken out, altogether and new provisions inserted.

On the first day of the second month after the passage of this act there shall be collected on all distilled spirits in bond at that time, or that may be then or thereafter produced in the United States, on which the tax is not paid before that day,

$1.10 a proof gallon or wine gallon when below proof, but in computing the tax all fractional parts of gallons less than one-tenth shall not be counted.

The bonded period section is as follows:

That the tax herein imposed shall be paid by the distiller of the spirits on or before their removal from the distillery or place of storage, except in case the removal therefrom without payment of tax is authorized by law; and (upon spirits lawfully deposited in any distillery warehouse, or other bonded warehouse established under internal-revenue laws) within eight years from the date of the original entry for deposit in any distillery warehouse, or from the date of original gauge of fruit brandy deposited in special bonded warehouse, except in case of withdrawal therefrom without payment of tax, as authorized by law.

Warehousing and transportation bonds are required as under the present law, conditioned, however, for the payment of taxes at the new rate, and before removal from warehouse, and within eight years. Provision is made for collecting the tax when any failure or refusal to give warehouse bonds on original entry occurs. Distillers are permitted, prior to the expiration of four years from the date of original gauge as to fruit brandy or original entry as to all other spirits, to have the same regauged.

The Commissioner of Internal Revenue is authorized, upon the execution of proper bond, to establish one or more warehouses, not exceeding ten in any one district, to be known as general bonded warehouses, to be used exclusively for the storage of spirits distilled from materials other than fruit. Provision is made for removal of liquors from the distilling warehouse to the general bonded warehouse, and spirits can be withdrawn for transfer from one general bonded warehouse to another but once. Distillers who have given bond and sell only distilled spirits of their own production in the original packages with tax-paid stamps attached are exempted from the payment of the special tax of a wholesale liquor dealer. The remaining provisions relate to detail, convictions and punishment for violations of the law.

CHEMICAL SCHEDULES.

The changes made in the chemical schedules are as follows: Tartaric acid, reduced from 20 to 10 per cent; alumina, increased from 20 to 30 per cent; coloring for liquors, reduced from 50 to 30 per cent; glycerine, changed to 20 per cent ad valorem; iodoform, changed from $1 per pound to 25 per cent ad valorem; licorice, changed from 5 cents per pound to 25 per cent ad valorem; magnesia, changed from 7 cents per pound to 30 per cent ad valorem; castor oil, changed from 35 cents per gallon to 30 per cent ad valorem; olive oil, changed from 35 cents per gallon to 25 per cent ad valorem; peppermint oil, reduced from 25 to 20 per cent; fish oils, reduced from 25 to 20 per cent; opium, extract of, for medicinal uses, changed from 25 to 20 per cent; baryta, changed from $3 per ton to 25 per cent ad valorem; blues, changed from 6 cents per pound to 20 per cent ad valorem; ochres, etc., changed from 1¼ cents per pound to 25 per cent ad valorem; whiting, changed from 25 to 35 per cent; zinc, changed from 20 to 25 per cent; bichromate and chromate of potash, changed from 20 to 25 per cent; hydriodate, from 25 cents per pound to 10 per cent ad valorem; medicinal preparations, such as cosmetics, from 40 to 30 per cent; toilet soap, from 35 to 30 per cent; bicarbonate of soda, saleratus, from ½ cent per pound to 30 per cent ad valorem.

Hydrate of soda, one-half cent a pound to 25 per cent ad valorem; bichromate and chromate of soda, from 20 to 25 per cent; sal soda or soda crystals, one-eighth cent per pound to 20 per cent; soda ash, one-quarter cent per pound to 20 per cent ad valorem; silicate of soda, or other alkali silicate, one-quarter cent per pound to 20 per cent; cream of tartar and patent tartar, 25 to 20 per cent; tartar and lees crystal, partly refined, from 25 to 20 per cent.

MISCELLANEOUS ITEMS.

In Schedule B brick, plain, is increased from 20 to 25 per cent ad valorem; china, from 40 to 45 per cent; glassware, plain, increased from 30 to 40 per cent; cut glass, increased from 30 to 40 per cent; glass bottles, increased from 35 to 40 per cent.

In the iron schedules iron in pigs is increased from 20 to 22½ per cent ad valorem; iron in slabs, increased from 22½ to 25 per cent; bar iron, increased from 25 to 28 per cent; reams, increased from 30 to 35 per cent. Boiler plates, iron or steel, increased from 25 to 30 per cent. Forgings of iron, increased from 25 to 30 per cent. Hoops or iron, increased from 25 to 30 per cent. Railway bars, increased from 20 to 22½ per cent. Boiler tubes, reduced from 25 to 20 per cent. Cast-iron pipe, reduced from 25 to 20 per cent.

Wood screws, reduced from 35 to 30 per cent.

In the miscellaneous schedule of metals gold leaf is reduced from 35 to 30 per cent. silver leaf, from 35 to 30 per cent. Steel pens are reduced from 35 to 30 per cent.

In the wood schedule osiers are increased from 7 to 10 per cent ad valorem.

AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS.

Under agricultural products barley is increased from 25 to 30 per cent, and barley malt from 35 to 40 per cent. Macaroni is reduced from 25 to 30 per cent. Butter is changed from 4 cents per pound to 20 per cent ad valorem. Preserved milk from 20 per cent ad valorem to 5 cents per pound. Hay from $2 a ton to 20 per cent ad valorem. Honey from 10 cents a gallon to 20 per cent ad valorem. Hops from 8 cents a pound to 20 per cent ad valorem. Onions from 20 cents a bushel to 20 per cent ad valorem. Peas changed from specific duty to 20 per cent. Potatoes changed from 10 cents a bushel to 30 per cent ad valorem. Castor beans changed from 25 cents per bushel to 20 per cent ad valorem. Smoked fish changed from three-fourths cent per pound to 15 per cent ad valorem. Apples, bananas, dates, olives, and pineapples taken from the free list and taxed 20 per cent ad valorem. Plums, prunes, figs, raisins, and Zante currants are all taxed 30 per cent ad valorem. Almonds are changed from 5 cents a pound to 25 per cent. Filberts and walnuts are changed from specific duty to 35 per cent ad valorem. Cocoanuts and Brazil nuts are taken from the free list and taxed 20 per cent ad valorem. Peanuts are changed from 1 per cent a pound to 20 per cent ad valorem. Nuts of all other kinds are made dutiable at 20 per cent ad valorem. Fresh beef, mutton, and pork are taken from the free list and taxed 25 per cent ad valorem. Poultry is changed from 2 cents a pound to 20 per cent ad valorem. Chicory root from 2 cents a pound to 30 per cent ad valorem. Chocolate is changed to 10 per cent ad valorem. Cocoa is changed to 5 per cent ad valorem, and cocoa butter to 15 per cent ad valorem. Dandelion root is changed to 30 per cent ad valorem. Starch and dextrine are changed from 1 cent a pound to 30 per cent ad valorem, and mustard is changed from 10 cents a pound to 25 per cent ad valorem. Spices are changed from 1 cent a pound to 30 per cent ad valorem. Vinegar is changed to 20 per cent ad valorem.

COTTON UNCHANGED.

The cotton schedule remains as in the Wilson bill.

Hemp burlaps are increased from 20 to 22½ per cent ad valorem. Flax nets and seines are increased from 30 to 35 per cent ad valorem.

Collars and cuffs, composed wholly or in part of linen, are increased from 35 to 45 per cent ad valorem.

In the leather schedules sole leather is increased from 5 to 10 per cent, calfskins from 15 to 20 per cent, and pianoforte leather is reduced from 25 to 20 per cent ad valorem.

In jewelry pearls are reduced from 15 to 10 per cent, precious stones, cut but not set, reduced from 30 to 15 per cent, and if set, reduced from 35 to 30 per cent ad valorem; imitations of precious stones are taxable at 10 per cent ad valorem.

Grindstones are changed from 75 cents per ton to 10 per cent ad valorem. Roofing slates increased from 10 to 20 per cent ad valorem.

THE INCOME TAX.

With the exception of changes in the text and modification of some of its provisions, the tax on incomes of more than $4,000 remains.

The language of the first section is made clearer, and reads as follows:

"That from and after January 1, 1895, there shall be collected and paid annually upon the gains, profits, and income received in the preceding calendar year by every citizen of the United States and every person residing therein, whether said gains, profits, or income be derived from any kind of property, rents, interest, dividends, or salaries, or from any profession, trade, employment, or vocation carried on in the United States or elsewhere, or from any other source whatever, a tax of 2 per cent on the amount so derived over and above $4,000; and a like tax shall be levied, collected, and paid annually upon the gains, profits, and incomes of all property owned, and of any business, trade, or profession carried on in the United States by persons residing without the United States."

In estimating these things which go to make up an income, in addition to the sales of live stock, sugar, wool, etc., the committee adds cotton. Proceeding along the line of the House bill, changes are only made to make the text clear, and where a word is used capable of being construed to give a discretionary power, the tense of the verb is changed to make it mandatory.

In section 59, which says there shall be levied and collected a tax of 2 per cent on all dividends, etc., the committee strikes out the following:

"On all dividends, annuities, or interest paid by corporations or associations organized for profit by virtue of the laws of the United States or any State, by means of which the liability of the individual stockholder is in any wise limited, in cash, scrip, or otherwise, and the net income of all such corporations in excess of such dividends, annuities, and interest, or from any other sources whatever."

The requirement that accounting officers must send in their lists within thirty days after any dividends become due and payable is changed to read: "On or before the 10th of the month following that in which such dividends become due and payable."

The provision in section 59, 'That this act shall not apply to the income or dividends received or paid by such building and loan associations as are organized under the laws of any State or Territory, and which do not make loans except to shareholders within the State where such associations have been organized. For the purposes of this act 'dividend' shall include every payment in the way of division among the owners of the stock or capital of a corporation, or persons entitled to a share of its profits or income, whether such dividends are paid out of profits or not, or are paid in cash or otherwise," is stricken out. An important clause added provides that dividends or interest accruing to States, counties, or municipalities, and dividends, interest, or annuities accruing to corporations or associations organized and conducted solely for charitable, religious, or educational purposes, or to any trustee or other fiduciary, on stocks, shares, funds, or securities held solely for charitable purposes, or salaries due to State, county, or municipal officers, shall not be subject to such tax or deduction.

The House bill made it obligatory upon all corporations paying any employé a salary of more than $4,000 to pay the tax and charge it to such employé. The Senate bill directs the corporation to report the salary paid, but gives the employé the right to act as his own financial agent in this transaction. The provision making payments of prize money the same as incomes from salaries is eliminated.

In expunging the tautology found in the House bill the Senate committee has cut out a number of sections, preserving the essential points by incorporating them with sections which they have condensed and rearranged.

Our treaty with Hawaii is to be terminated by the terms of this bill.

After the memorial of the National Woolgrowers' Association was presented to the Senate the Hon. Worthington C. Ford, chief of the Bureau of Statistics in the Treasury Department, made a report on "WOOL AND MANUFACTURES OF WOOL," somewhat after the plan of the reports of Hon. William F. Switzler, chief of the Bureau, on the same subjects, in the years 1887 and 1888. In this report of Mr. Ford some *views are presented which are regarded as* FAVORING THE *policy of free wool*, to which it is deemed not only appropriate, but necessary, to make some answer, and which, of course, could not have been made in either of the memorials mentioned.

The following "APPEAL" is *now* accordingly presented, with such facts and views appended as are deemed proper, in answer to the report of Mr. Ford and to the *changed condition* of the Wilson bill.

Additional CHAPTERS are appended to the "APPEAL" in support of the general positions and purposes both of the Memorial mentioned of the NATIONAL WOOLGROWERS' ASSOCIATION and also of the MEMORIAL OF THE OHIO WOOLGROWERS' ASSOCIATION TO THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES, ASKING THAT NO REDUCTION SHALL BE MADE IN THE DUTIES ON WOOL OR WOOLEN GOODS, which was presented in that body January 17, 1894, and printed as Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session.

On the 20th of March, 1894, the tariff bill was reported to the Senate.

"WOOLGROWERS' APPEAL TO THE SENATE."

E APPEAL OF THE NATIONAL WOOLGROWERS' ASSOCIATION, F WOOL MERCHANTS, AND OTHERS TO THE SENATE OF THE NITED STATES, NOT TO PLACE WOOLS ON THE FREE LIST, BUT O RETAIN THE PRESENT DUTIES—WITH APPENDIXES.

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atistics of sheep husbandry—(1) number of wool-growers, (2) number of sheep, (3) capital invested, (4) product.
vestments on the faith of protective legislation.
IFTEEN PROPOSITIONS as to sheep husbandry proved in U. S. Senate miscellaneous documents numbered 35 and 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session.
hy shall discrimination be made against farmers?
ool-growers ask the Senate to give full and fair consideration to additional evidence herewith furnished.

APPENDICES.

OOL MANUFACTURERS PROTEST AGAINST THE WILSON BILL AS CHANGED BY THE MAJORITY OF THE SENATE COMMITTEE ON FINANCE.

1. *The New Jersey manufacturers.*
2. *Capital represented.*
3. *The protest—Reasons against reduced duties for woolen goods.*
4. *Request by wool manufacturers for oral hearing before the Senate Committee on Finance refused.*

PUBLIC SENTIMENT AMONG FARMERS AS TO THE SENATE COMMITTEE'S PROVISIONS ON THE WILSON BILL.

1. *The comment of the Ohio farmer.*
2. *The power of the lobby.*
3. *The sugar trust.*
4. *Unjust discrimination against farmers.*

THE DESTRUCTION OF AMERICAN WOOL-SCOURING ESTABLISHMENTS BY THE WILSON BILL.

1. *Comments of the Boston American Wool and Cotton Reporter of March 15, 1894, on the Wilson bill and our Wool Washeries.*
2. *Scoured wools admitted free by the Wilson bill.*

PROTEST OF TEXTILE WORKERS.

1. *Who they are.*
2. *As to shoddy in England and in the United States.*
3. *As to wages of wool workers.*
4. *The ruin of ad valorem duties.*
5. *The injustice of the term "robber baron."*
6. *Shoddy in England and in the United States.*
7. *Girl wages in the United States and in Europe.*

8. *Free wool will not give cheaper woolen manufactures.*
   A. *The principle illustrated in President Fillmore's annual message to Congress in 1852.*
   B. Further proved in U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, pp. 167–175, 317.
   C. Further proved by the declaration of Brougham in the House of Commons in 1816. See U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, p. 134.

V. THE CLEVELAND PLAIN DEALER [DEMOCRATIC] ON THE WILSON BILL AS MODIFIED BY THE SENATE COMMITTEE ON FINANCE.

1. *Editorial March 14, 1894, says wool should have a tariff.*

THE APPEAL OF THE NATIONAL WOOLGROWERS' ASSOCIATION, OF WOOL MERCHANTS, AND OTHERS, TO THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES NOT TO PLACE WOOL ON THE FREE LIST, BUT TO RETAIN THE PRESENT DUTIES; WITH APPENDICES.

To the Honorable the Senate of the United States:

I. *Sheep-husbandry statistics.*—The woolgrowers of the United States are more than a million in number, owning 45,000,000 sheep of the value, under normal conditions, of $150,000,000, and including this, lands, and fixtures for sheep husbandry, with a total capital invested of $500,000,000, giving to labor, *including* services of flockmasters, $85,000,000 annually, and with an annual product in wool, mutton, and pelts, at fair prices, of more than $110,000,000, which exceeds by more than $26,000,000 the total product of all our American mines of gold and silver in the year 1892.

II. These investments were made on the faith of an established legislative policy which invited them and promised their preservation.

III. It has been shown in Senate Miscellaneous Documents Nos. 35 and 77 of the present session of Congress—

(1) That without adequate protective duties American woolgrowers can not successfully compete with those of Australasia, South Africa, South America and other countries having cheaper labor, cheaper pasturage, cheap ocean freights, and climate requiring no winter feeding. (See U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, p. 243.)

(2) That free wool will speedily result in the substantial destruction of our American sheep husbandry. (See Mis. Doc. No. 35, p. 243.)

(3) That all agricultural industries are more depressed than any others and consequently need favorable legislation. (See Doc. No. 77, p. 25; Doc. No. 35, pp. 99, 140, 157, 221.)

(4) That free wool will NOT *ultimately* and *permanently* secure cheaper clothing. (Doc. No. 35, p. 167.)

(5) That one-half of all the 610,000,000 pounds of wool annually consumed by the people of this country have been imported in the form of wool and woolen goods. (Mis. Doc. No. 35, p. 81, 289.)

(6) That foreign wools come chiefly from countries which take substantially nothing from us in return, but gold. (Doc. No. 77, p. 23.)

(7) That, with our sheep husbandry substantially destroyed, the annual gold exports of $60,000,000 to buy foreign wools would soon deprive our people of the needed coin for business, and bring periodical financial panics. (Doc. No. 77, p. 23.)

(8) That, with adequate protection, in five years American woolgrowers *can* and will with 110,000,000 sheep produce all needed wools of

ery kind; hence the exclusion *then* of *all* wool imports would injure ne but foreigners, and give many benefits to *all* our people.

9) That the result would be to *more than double* the sheep-husbandry COME of our farmers, more than double the sheep-husbandry *wealth* the country; share and relieve the burden of taxation; maintain a fe and solid coin money basis for business; *increase* the demand for STURAGE, HAY, CORN, *and* OATS, to produce needed wool and itton, and thus *add to the value of farms*, relieve the depression in all ricultural industries, increase the demand for labor to care for sheep, ar lands, erect new buildings, and utilize vast areas of lands otherse waste, add to national resources, and render the Republic independnt in peace and in war for supplies of food and clothing. (Doc. No. , p. 101, 155.)

(10) That these, and other beneficial results, would *increase the ability our entire agricultural population*—one-half our people—to liberally tronize those engaged in *all other* industrial and useful pursuits, furnish undant and cheap meat food, and thus secure general employment d prosperity for all; and that hence protective duties would bring *ssings*, NOT burdens. (Doc. No. 35, p. 5, 105, 186, 212.)

(11) That sheep husbandry is adapted to every State and Territory—e only *absolutely national industry*—giving equal benefits to every cality. (Doc. No. 35, p. 7, 111.)

(12) That sheep husbandry, with its products of wool, mutton, and lts, never has been, and never can be, made the subject of *monopoly, usts*, or *combinations*, to extort or secure unfair prices. (Doc. No. 77, . 25.)

(13) That *wool, mutton*, and *pelts*, and the *agencies for reaching their arket*, are in practical *results all of 90 per cent labor*, except possibly a few favored localities; only about 10 per cent and *generally less* ing to capital for rents of land and interest on investments. (Doc. o. 35, p. 187.)

(14) That, in view of all these and other considerations, sheep husandry and its allied industry of wool manufacturing, have *better* and *ronger claims* to *protection than any other industry in the country.* Doc. No. 77, p. 5, 21.)

(15) That the present wool duties are, under existing conditions, ven *less* than *low* revenue duties. (Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, p. 37–40; Iis. Doc. No. 35, p. 322, 325.)

IV. *Why discriminate in favor of some industries and against sheep usbandry?*—The woolgrowers have been surprised and amazed at the onclusion reached by a majority of the Committee on Finance, to ingle out sheep husbandry for destruction while providing protective luties for other and less-deserving industries.

Why should rice be protected and not wool?

Why should sugar production be aided rather than wool?

Why should the sugars, from which the well-known sugar trust may erive profit, be especially favored, and woolgrowers, without monoply or trust, be singled out for destruction?

Why should iron ore, and lead ore, and coal be protected rather than vool and mutton?

Is not labor in agriculture and the products of farms as well entitled o protection as mines and the labor employed to develop them?

Why should *peanuts* be protected with a duty and wool go unprotected?

Why should legislative favor be extended to whisky and the immense vhisky trust, and the more deserving interests of farmers be ignored?

Why the DOUBLE discrimination against wool by denying it the benefit of either *protective* OR *revenue* duties?

Why place wool on the free list, anxiously desired by foreign woolgrowers for THEIR BENEFIT, NOT OURS, but without one petition of our citizens to Congress asking it, and with protests against it from vast numbers of people of all political parties, of all occupations and from all portions of the United States?

We believe in giving ample and just protection to all deserving industries.

We PROTEST *against odious and unjust discrimination against any.*

We protest against favoritism for our rivals in foreign countries and for mere local American industries, UNITED with hostility to great GENERAL industries of American farmers.

Since the majority of the Committee on Finance have declined to permit an oral hearing to Woolgrowers, WE NOW PRESENT *this our* APPEAL TO THE SENATE *for adequate protection to sheep husbandry.*

We append hereto additional evidences of the propositions already stated, and ask for them full and fair consideration.

WILLIAM LAWRENCE,
President of the National Woolgrowers' Association, and President of the Ohio Woolgrowers' Association.

WM. G. MARKHAM,
Secretary National Woolgrowers' Association, and President New York State Sheep-breeders and Woolgrowers' Association.

W. N. COWDEN,
Secretary Ohio Woolgrowers' Association.

JOSEPH D. TAYLOR, *of Ohio.*

R. E. DOAN, *of Ohio.*

JOSEPH H. BRIGHAM,
Master of the National Grange of the Patrons of Husbandry, of the United States.

Committee of Woolgrowers' Association.

MARCH 21, 1894.

APPENDICES.

I. WOOL MANUFACTURERS' PROTEST AGAINST THE WILSON BILL, AS CHANGED BY THE MAJORITY OF THE SENATE COMMITTEE ON FINANCE.

[From the Weekly New York Tribune of March 14, 1894.]

WOOLEN MEN'S EARNEST PROTEST—THEY ASK FOR A HEARING, BUT IT IS REFUSED THEM.

WASHINGTON, *March 9, 1894.*

A committee representing the woolen and worsted manufacturers of New Jersey visited Washington yesterday. Among its members were Thomas Oakes, Bloomfield; Ludwig Kick, Botany Worsted Mills, Passaic; Alfred Foster, Samuel K. Wilson, Woolen and Worsted Mill, Trenton; Felix Samson, Raritan and Somerset Mills, Raritan; Joseph Holdsworth, Pitkin, Holdsworth & Co., limited, and the Algonquin Company, Passaic; George B. Waterhouse, Dundee Woolen Company, Passaic; Henry L Basch, Passaic Woolen Company; Howland Croft Son & Co., Camden; J. W. Scull, Ackroy & Scull, Camden; Herbert Bottomly, A. Preistly & Co., Camden; Benjamin Boyer, Shimer & Boyer, Camden, and George W. Bramhall, Bound Brook Company. This committee was appointed at a meeting of all the woolen manufacturers of New Jersey, held on March 6, and which was brought together by the alarm of the manufacturers at the rates of duty on woolen goods proposed in the Senate "revise" of the Wilson bill.

2. *This meeting represented fully $10,000,000 of capital employed in this manufacture in New Jersey*, paying out nearly $3,000,000 annually in wages to more than 10,000 operatives. The members of the committee were in earnest in their condemnation of the proposed tariff, and declared that its enactment meant either the closing of every woolen mill in New Jersey or a reduction of fully 50 per cent in current wages.

The committee called upon Senators Smith and McPherson, and had a hearing from each Senator. They went carefully into detail as to the effect of the proposed rates of duties upon their industry. The committee also called upon Senator Hill and presented their case to him. S. N. D. North, the secretary of the Wool Manufacturers' Association, to-day addressed the following appeal for a hearing to the Finance Committee of the Senate:

(3) THE PROTEST.

To the Finance Committee of the Senate:

The wool manufacturers of the United States learn with profound amazement that the Finance Committee, while ignoring their request for a hearing upon the provisions of the Wilson tariff bill, has so amended that measure as to reduce still further the totally inadequate protection accorded the various branches of this important industry by the House of Representatives.

A convention of wool manufacturers, knit goods manufacturers, carpet manufacturers, wholesale clothiers, commission merchants, and others, whose business interests are vitally affected by the proposed revision of Schedule K, was held in New York City on January 10, 1894, at which a protest was unanimously adopted which set forth the most objectionable features of this schedule of the Wilson bill. It was therein stated, on the responsibility of more than 1,100 citizens engaged in the various branches of this industry, that the adoption of this schedule in its form then "would destroy a large part of the capital invested in this industry and render it uncertain whether the remainder shall be productive." It was stated that the bill forced upon this industry a transformation of the most radical character without any precaution against disaster, from an abrupt reversal of economic conditions. It was stated that its enactment must compel a reduction of wages equal to from 25 to 40 per cent under circumstances which rendered it doubtful if the manufacture could even then maintain itself against foreign competition. It was and is believed that the Wilson bill, so far as Schedule K is concerned, was framed with no adequate conception of its practical effects.

The manufacturers have been at all times prepared to demonstrate this fact and to establish by indisputable evidence the statement above recited. At no time since the bill was originally framed have they had any opportunity before any committee of either House to analyze and explain the effects of these proposed rates or to point out the technical errors in the classification and phraseology of the schedule.

The still more radical reductions now proposed by the Senate Finance Committee are based upon no intelligent information. They are proposed in self-evident disregard of consequences, and the manufacturers are again compelled to ask that an opportunity may be accorded them to show to the Finance Committee what these consequences must be.

It is inconceivable to these manufacturers that legislation which THREATENS THE DESTRUCTION OF MORE THAN $500,000,000 OF CAPITAL INVESTED IN A GROUP OF ALLIED INDUSTRIES, SCATTERED THROUGHOUT THE UNION, SHALL BE ENACTED BY AN AMERICAN CONGRESS IN THE FACE OF THIS POSITIVE AND UNEQUIVOCAL ASSERTION OF ITS DESTRUCTIVENESS and in total disregard of the earnest prayers of these petitioners to be heard in self-defense. They have searched in vain for any precedent for so arbitrary a course. It is found in the experience of no other civilized country.

Believing their appeal to be perfectly reasonable, they again respectfully ask the Finance Committee to allow them the privilege of a hearing before judgment of confiscation is passed. This petition is made in the name of the 1,150 manufacturers and merchants participating in the New York convention of January 10, 1894.

S. N. D. NORTH,
Secretary.

(4) AN ORAL HEARING DENIED.

THE FINANCE COMMITTEE DECLINED, HOWEVER, TO ACCEDE TO MR. NORTH'S REQUEST.

"THE OHIO FARMER ON THE WILSON BILL."

I. THE EDITORIAL COMMENT OF THE CLEVELAND OHIO FARMER OF MARCH 15, 1894, ON THE WILSON BILL AS AGREED UPON BY THE DEMOCRATIC MAJORITY OF THE SENATE COMMITTEE OF FINANCE.

The following is presented as expressing the opinion of a strictly onpolitical nonpartisan journal, and from the standpoint of farmers enerally:

(1) *Comment of the Ohio Farmer.*—The bill places a duty of 40 cents a ton on iron re and coal and three-fourths of a cent per pound on lead ore. Sugar is taxed one ent a pound on all grades not testing 80° by the polariscope, one one-hundredth of cent additional for every degree above that and under 90°, two one-hundredths of cent for every additional degree up to 95°, and 1¼ cents on all above. WOOL, IOWEVER, STAYS ON THE FREE LIST, except that in the form of roving, oping, or tops, the Wilson bill is changed so as to make only one rate of 25 per cent d valorem. HOW DO OUR FARMER FRIENDS REGARD THE SINGLING OUT)F THEIR ONE INTEREST ON WHICH A TARIFF DUTY WAS DEMANDED? 'HOSE WHO BELIEVED IN "FREE RAW MATERIAL" CAN NOW COMPLA-:ENTLY CONTEMPLATE THE APPLICATION OF THIS DOCTRINE TO THEIR)WN PRODUCT EXCLUSIVELY, WHILE THEY CHEERFULLY PAY THE PRO-:ECTIVE TAX UPON EVERYTHING THEY PURCHASE!!

(2) *The power of the lobby.*—The special dispatch to one of our city dailies says that hese changes in the Senate bill are a practical demonstration of the power of the obby. "Scores of men spent weeks in the Senate corridors, and each succeeding lay the pressure was almost doubled to force favorable consideration to the articles :lamoring for protection." This pressure prevailed. *The sugar trust prevailed.* The wool lobby was not there.

* * * * * * *

What kind of statesmanship is that which surrenders a principle at the demand of a powerful lobby and refuses to listen or give consideration to the *representatives of an interest greater than all the others combined*, but so widely scattered and affording so little profit that to maintain an expensive lobby at Washington for any length of time is impossible? What kind of statesmanship is it that announces in one House the "release of the great basic materials of modern industry" as the foundation of tariff reform, and in the other House declaring that *this principle does not apply to anything but wool?* What kind of statesmanship is it that declares "that a tariff for the protection of *any* private enterprise is robbery of the public," and then places a decided protective tariff on *all* products defended by powerful influences?

(3) *The sugar trust.*—What kind of statesmanship is it that, in order to *relieve* the American people of tariff burdens, places an annual tax of $40,000,000 upon sugar, a *common necessity, every cent of which the American people must pay?* And they will pay much more than this if the Senate bill becomes a law, for it *places the higher grades of sugar under control of the sugar trust.* The Populists in the Senate even assert that Havemeyer, the sugar baron, dictated the sugar schedule.

(4) *Unjust discrimination.*—Protection may or may not protect. You may choose which for yourself. But if it protects in one case it does in another. *If it is not necessary for wool then it is not necessary for any other American product.* The same arguments that induced the Senate Committee on Finance to take iron ore, coal, lead, etc., from the Wilson bill free list and place a protective tax upon them apply with equal force to wool, and common justice would have at once recognized this fact and acted upon it. The same logic that induced Mr. Wilson and the House to place a protective duty upon woolen and other manufactures applies with equal force to wool and all other so-called basic materials.

AMERICAN WOOL WASHERS.

III.—THE DESTRUCTION OF AMERICAN WOOL-SCOURING ESTABLISHMENTS.

[From the Boston American Wool and Cotton Reporter of March 15, 1894.]

SCOURED WOOLS IN SENATE BILL.

MANCHESTER, CONN., *March 9, 1894.*

Editor of the Wool and Cotton Reporter:

In examining the Senate tariff bill as published in the daily press, I find that carbonized wools and wastes of all kinds are subject to a 15 per cent ad valorem duty, but fail to find a single word about scoured wools. Does it mean, in your opinion, that scoured wool is to be admitted free of duty?

Wool that has been scoured is by no means raw wool and ought to be protected just as well as any kind of waste. I can not believe that the wish of the Senate is to see the many concerns engaged in the wool-scouring business in the United States shut down their plants and remove to Europe. This is, however, what will surely happen if scoured wool is admitted free of duty, because the only way left to American scourers to compete with foreign concerns is to go where they can find the same advantages of cheap labor. Kindly answer through your columns and oblige,

SUBSCRIBER.

(1) *Comments of the Reporter.*—When the original Wilson bill was first reported from the Ways and Means Committee, the Reporter received inquiries from several subscribers, who had evidently given paragraph 389 of Schedule K but a cursory examination, as to whether scoured wool was included in this paragraph, it being wool "improved or advanced beyond its original condition." But if they had looked further they would have found that the paragraph read as follows:

Wool of the sheep, hair of the camel, goat, alpaca, and other like animals, in the form of slubbing waste, roving waste, ring waste, mungo, shoddies, garnetted or carded waste, carbonized noils or other waste product, any of which is composed wholly or in part of wool, the hair of the camel, goat, alpaca, and other like animals, which has been improved or advanced beyond its original condition *as waste* by the use of machinery or the application of labor, or both, and carbonized wool shall be subject to a duty of 15 per cent ad valorem.

(2) *Scoured wools admitted free by the Wilson bill.*—It would seem from the foregoing that the clause *as waste* effectually answers this question, and that scoured wools, unless they have been carbonized, are not made dutiable in this bill. The Senate tariff bill does not alter this paragraph.—ED.

IV. TEXTILE WORKERS AT WASHINGTON.

THEY WILL RETURN TO THE CAPITOL IN FORCE APRIL 6 AND 7.

The Reporter correspondent recently had an interview with Ephraim iggs, president of the Germantown Textile Workers' Association, hiladelphia, Pa.

(1) *Who they are.*—When asked for some facts in reference to this fort of the association, President Riggs replied: Our committee, repre-nting the Germantown Textile Workers' Association, also the Ken-ngton Protective Tariff League, visited Washington, remaining from ebruary 14 to 16. The names of our delegates were as follows: Of the ermantown Textile Workers' Association, Ephraim Riggs, president; ohn C. Rowland, secretary; Paul Wallace and John C. Dunkerly. Of e Kensington Protective League, George Carnshaw, George Welsh, harles H. Law, James Edgar, and Fred W. Smith, general secretary.

(2) *As to shoddy.*—First. Our object in visiting Washington was to ow that *shoddy goods* were not made in Philadelphia, but on the con-ary fine goods, although we had a duty on wool.

(3) *As to wages.*—Second. *To show that wages* in Philadelphia were om 100 to 200 per cent and more higher than in Europe for the same ne of goods.

(4) *As to ad valorem duties.*—Third. That the ad valorem duties in he Wilson bill meant ruin to the textile industries, and insisted on pecific duties being inserted in the Wilson bill.

(5) *The injustice of the terms "robber baron."*—Fourth. To show that the pithet of "robber baron" to our manufacturers is unjust and uncalled or, because the manufacturers of Europe make as much profit on their oney invested as do the American manufacturers, and while the European manufacturer pays starvation wages to his workmen, the American manufacturer pays good wages, and this without doubt. We xplained this to Senators Allison and Cameron on February 14, and o Senator Mills on February 16. We exhibited goods of all kinds, orsted goods, worsted and woolen yarns, also carpets of all descrip-ions, upholstery of all kinds, carpet yarns, also Turkish towels and oolen goods. Congressman Harmer, of the twenty-second ward of Phil-delphia, was very kind to us, and did all in his power to help us.

Senators Allison and Cameron were certainly amazed at the fine and eautiful goods Philadelphia is capable of producing, and both gentle-nen said it was a shame and a standing disgrace that the textile and ther industries should be so paralyzed by the infamous Wilson bill, nd promised to fight the bill to the last ditch. Senator Mills we ound hard to obtain an interview with, but on the third day he granted t first an interview of 20 minutes, and all were so pleased with our epresentation that we were allowed one and one-half hours. Senator Mills declared that he was for absolute free trade, and said he hoped to ee free trade fully established in the United States. Consequently Senator Mills is no friend of the workingmen of the North and seems o glory in the ruin of our great industries.

(6) *Shoddy in England and in the United States.*—We further informed the Senators that while England used 600,000,000 pounds of shoddy in 1891 for her 37,000,000 people, America only produced 60,000,000 pounds of shoddy for 65,000,000 people. If the McKinley bill was let alone, we could (we said) make anything required.

(7) *Girl wages in United States and in Europe.*—And while our girl weavers were making $14 per week English girl weavers only made $2.50 to $4 per week; the latter were the highest paid. We showed them that the workingmen of America received the benefit of protection, without a doubt, in the shape of higher wages than his brother workmen in Europe.

(8) *Free wool will not give cheaper manufactures.*—We showed them worsted men's wear that could be sold to the consumers in Philadelphia as cheap as in Bradford, Yorkshire, England.

Senators Allison and Cameron remarked to us that they wanted us to inform our people in Philadelphia that the bill should not be rushed through the Senate as it was through the House.

The committee of textile workers are thoroughly in earnest. There is a strong determination on their part to fight hard for the protection to themselves and their families, and it will go hard with the Senators who attempt to turn them down. In the future there will be more effort made to organize a general movement all over the country. Meetings are being held, and 10,000 men are expected to go down to Washington on April 6 and appear before the Senate in a body April 7. Full information of this demonstration can be obtained from Ephraim Riggs, Germantown, Philadelphia. The committee wish every industrial State to send as many workingmen as possible to reach Washington on Friday, April 6. Arrangements are already being made with the railroads to accommodate 2,000 or more from Philadelphia alone who are expected to go.

The textile interests are immense in this city. Germantown, Philadelphia, pays $32,000 in wages weekly; Manayunk, $50,000, to say nothing about the city proper and other suburbs. We left all our samples of goods with Congressman Harmer until we return again to Washington, April 6 and 7.

The committee mean business, and when they return again no doubt there will be some interesting facts brought out which may be the means of showing the Senators more fully than they have ever known before the great injury they would do to America should the Wilson bill become a law. The Reporter wishes the textile workers every success and will lend its aid in the future as it has in the past to promote all laudable efforts to defeat this measure so harmful to American industries.

(9) *As to monopoly.*—The position that free wool will not give us cheaper manufactured goods may be proved and illustrated from several sources:

(*a*) President Fillmore, in his annual message to Congress in 1852, in discussing the effect of the low-rate revenue Walker tariff of 1846, said:

> The destruction of our manufactures leaves the foreigner *without competition* in our market, and he consequently *raises the price of the articles sent here for sale as* IS NOW SEEN IN THE INCREASED COST OF IRON IMPORTED FROM ENGLAND.

(*b*) It is further proved. See U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, 2d session, pp. 167–175, 317.

(*c*) Further proved by the declaration of Brougham in the House of Commons in 1816. See U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, 2d session, p. 134.

V. The Cleveland Plain Dealer [Democratic] on the Wilson Bill as modified by the Democratic Majority of the Senate Committee on Finance.

(1) *The Cleveland Plain Dealer of March 14, 1894, has the following editorial:*

WOOL.

We regret that that the subcommittee should have made an exception in leaving wool on the free list. If the tariff is to be a tariff for revenue then we say let everything that can produce a revenue be placed upon the tariff list. This is the *only logical conclusion.* We have contended for this from the first. We want this bill to be made as nearly perfect as possible. It is greatly improved as it comes from the hands of the subcommittee over the Wilson bill. If it is a wise policy to place sugar on the tariff list, and we believe it is, then, *with equal justice wool should be placed on the tariff list.* We do not mean by this a high protective tariff, but a revenue tariff* with incidental protection. It seems almost idle to talk about incidental protection, *because a revenue tariff whenever it is applied to articles that are brought into the country in competition with what we produce here affords a certain amount of protection.* We believe sincerely in having coal, iron ore, lead ore, made a source of revenue, and now we are just as much in favor of having wool made a source of revenue as other products.

There is no justice, talk about it as we may, in putting a tariff on manufactured goods and leaving the tariff off of the material of which they are made. The labor and the money that is invested in the production of these so-called raw materials are just as much entitled to consideration as the money and the labor in the mills and factories that produce manufactured articles. The Senate bill has a much fuller application of the principle of ad valorem duties than the Wilson bill. Just in such proportion as it has taken articles from the free list and put them on the tariff list, just in such proportion is the bill made more Democratic, more logical, and more defensible. Every time it is considered and every step it moves along it seems to move in the right direction. We hope that before the bill leaves the Finance Committee wool will be placed on the revenue list. If this be done, with a few other changes, it will be by all odds one of the best tariff bills ever presented for adoption by the people.

*In Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, it is proved that the *present duties* are *only low revenue duties.* See pp. 37–40, 46.

CHAPTER FIRST.

THE REPORT OF HON. WORTHINGTON C. FORD, CHIEF OF THE BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT, FEBRUARY, 1894, ON WOOL AND MANUFACTURES OF WOOL.

The eminent wool merchant, Theodore Justice, on the report of February, 1894, made by Hon. Worthington C. Ford, chief of the Bureau of Statistics of the Treasury Department, as to "Wool and manufactures of wool."

The following is a copy of a letter addressed by Theodore Justice to sundry members of the Senate of the United States:

JUSTICE, BATEMAN & CO., WOOL COMMISSION MERCHANTS,
122 South Front Street, Philadelphia, March 6, 1894.

DEAR SIR: May we ask you to read the marked portions of the inclosed wool circular, the publication of which has been made necessary by a statement by the Bureau of Statistics to the effect that American sheep husbandry has made no headway under protection, when, in point of fact, for prolonged periods under protection the wool crop of the United States has increased more rapidly than the wool clip of any other wool-producing nation of the world. The diagrams in this circular show that if the increase had not been halted by adverse legislation we would have produced in a very short time the whole quantity of wool which we now consume, even including that imported in the shape of manufactured goods. The diagram illustrating the fact is fully explained in the paragraphs marked in blue.

As the wool question must inevitably occupy considerable attention in debates on the Wilson tariff bill, we ask you, in the interest of this great industry, to familiarize yourself with the facts contained in the circular, especially as the recent efforts of the Bureau of Statistics to prove the contrary will undoubtedly be made use of by those who favor free wool.

We would like to call your attention to the importance of wool as a munition of war, which subject is discussed at greater length on pages 21, 65, and 66 of the wool-growers memorial in Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, second session of the Fifty-third Congress, and on pages 169, 192–209 of Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session.

Very truly yours,

THEODORE JUSTICE.

The following is from the wool circular of Justice, Bateman & Co., Philadelphia, March 1, 1894:

(1) *Effect of the threat of free wool.*—Rumors from Washington with reference to the probable passage or defeat of the tariff bill now influence the market. With the waning prospects of securing any duty on wool, the demand has fallen off and is now limited to the temporary requirements of the mills.

Although prices are the lowest ever known in this country, there is no certainty that the bottom has yet been reached.

Many industries that were on the eve of revival have been halted, and a more general paralysis of business prevails. This contraction is shown in the falling off in bank clearings which for the month of February were in the neighborhood of 35 per cent below those of the previous month, and it is also shown by the falling off in railroad earnings. Business recovery is seriously impeded by the diminished purchasing power of the nation, owing to the loss of earnings by the army of unemployed. The heavy shrinkage in the value of property and merchandise during the past nine months involves the wool market by the very great curtailment in the sale of clothing, the home production as well as the imports of which have so greatly fallen off.

(2) *Why should wool be free?*—No satisfactory reason can be given why wool should be exposed to the destructive influences of foreign competition. It is a necessity of our comfortable existence, and no army without wool could successfully conduct its operations in time of war. Wool is as much a munition of war as any other material. If coal is not to be considered a raw material, there is much more reason why wool can not be so considered, as it takes a whole year for a sheep to produce its fleece; yet coal in one hour can be got ready for market. The element of labor in marketing a ton of wool exceeds many fold that which is expended in marketing a ton of coal; yet there seems to be much greater chance for a duty upon coal than upon wool. If unfavorable legislation should close the coal mines of this country for a thousand years the coal would still remain there, ready for use whenever the nation was once more permitted to resume its industrial activities; but when the flocks of sheep disappear, as they are now doing, they can not be suddenly restored. If this industry is to begin anew it will take many years to reach its present proportions, and if the blow now aimed at the woolgrowing industry is struck it will cause its practical destruction.

(3) *Free wool* will cause the export of gold and *bring financial panics.*—The ultimate result of this would be not only dependence upon foreign countries for our wool supply, but the loss to the nation of the value of the domestic clip, for, instead of distributing its cost among woolgrowers at home, to be spent at home, *it must be paid in gold to foreigners, with the ultimate result of higher prices for clothing.* This would be a decided loss to the whole nation without any corresponding gain.

(4.) *American woolgrowers can soon produce ALL needed wools under adequate protection.*—The American sheep husbandry *under adequate protection* has TWICE made such rapid headway in the increase of flocks as to lead to the assurance that *with the continuance of that protection we would soon produce the total amount of wool consumed by this country.* During the last twelve years of the tariff law of 1867 the American clip increased 100 per cent, that increase being from 170,000,000 pounds in 1873 to over 340,000,000 pounds in 1884. If the duties had not been lowered at the end of that period, it is fair to assume that the same ratio of increase would have continued, in which case we would have produced in 1895 over 650,000,000 pounds, which, including the raw wool imported in the shape of manufactured goods, is the total amount of wool consumed by this country. A serious check to the growth of the wool industry was given by the reduction of duties in 1883, but with the restoration of a portion of those duties by the McKinley law in 1890 such an impetus was given to the woolgrowing industry that the clip again increased at a rapid rate. The increase was from 310,000,000 pounds in 1891 to 360,000,000 in 1893, so that if the McKinley law had not been assailed it is fair to assume that by the year 1900 we would produce 650,000,000 pounds.

The actual increases during the two periods alluded to above are illustrated by the solid black lines extending from left to right in the following diagrams. The dotted lines which continue in the same direction indicate the time at which we would arrive at the production of our entire home consumption of wool.

Diagram showing that at the rate of increase from 1873 to 1884 under the protective influence of the tariff law of 1867, if continued at the same ratio until 1895 the wool clip of the United States would then have reached 650,000,000 pounds, which, including the wool contained in imported goods, is all that is annually consumed by the American people at the present time.

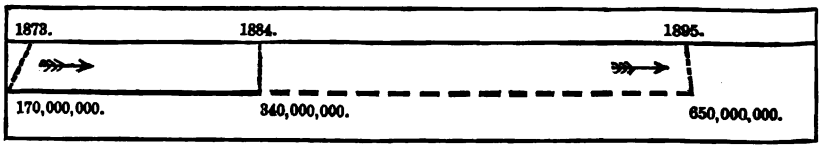
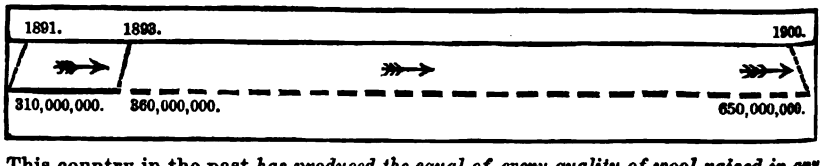


Diagram showing that at the rate of increase from 1891 to 1893 under the McKinley law, if continued at the same rate until 1900 the wool clip of United States would then have reached 650,000,000 pounds, which, including the wool in imported goods, is all that is annually consumed by the American people at the present time.



This country in the past *has produced the equal of every quality of wool raised in any other part of the world. There is no quality of foreign wool the equal of which can not be*

and has not been produced in America. The only reason why certain qualities which were formerly raised here in great abundance are now imported, is because they are produced more cheaply in foreign countries.

ADEQUATE PROTECTION WILL SOON GIVE US ALL THE WOOL WE NEED—THE MISTAKES OF THE REPORT OF HON. WORTHINGTON C. FORD.

[From the Philadelphia, Pa., Manufacturer, February 24, 1894.]

The figures respecting American wool published last week by the Bureau of Statistics were intended to prove that American sheep husbandry had made no headway under protection. They concealed the fact that between the years 1881 and 1890 the number of American sheep rose to high figures and then, under the influence of reduced duties, fell again. The correct figures demonstrate conclusively that the business prospers under high duties and decays under low duties. Under the high duties of the tariff of 1867 the American clip expanded from 170,000,000 pounds in 1873 to 340,000,000 pounds in 1884. That is to say, it doubled in twelve years. If the duties had not been lowered in 1883 we may fairly suppose that the same ratio of increase would have continued. In that case we should have produced 680,000,000 pounds of wool two years hence, in 1896. The total consumption at the present time (including the wool in imported fabrics) is about 650,000,000 pounds. This is the industry that is marked for slaughter by the free traders at a time when the low prices of wool and the increasing consumption show that the high duties oppress nobody. It is selected for sacrifice, not for the advantage of the people; not for the benefit of anybody, but solely because the purpose of the free traders is to root out the system of protection to home industry, and this can not be accomplished while the farmers are interested with the manufacturers in maintaining it.

Wool is the very last of the raw materials of industry, now dutiable, that should be exposed to the destructive influences of foreign competition. In the first place, it is a positive necessity of comfortable existence in this country. Without it our people can not live safely in time of peace. Without it no American army can conduct operation in time of war. Coal and iron ore are no more essential to the vital force of the nation. But no power in Congress, or out of it can deprive the country of its mineral resources. If American legislation upon industrial matters should be controlled by jackassery and treason for a thousand years, the coal and the iron ore in our minds would remain as they are, ready for use, whenever the nation once more permitted reason to resume its sway. The coal could be placed in marketable shape within a few hours. The iron ore would be ready for the furnace fires as quickly. But, when American flocks of sheep shall disappear, as now they are disappearing, they can not suddenly be restored. Beginning anew, sheep husbandry could hardly within twenty years regain its recent proportions. The blow aimed at the business now is, therefore, intended to produce destruction which may possibly be irreparable, for, while no assurance of continued protection shall be given, Americans will find small inducement again to invest capital in the industry. The ultimate result will probably be, not only dependence upon other countries for a material which this country can easily produce, and not only the loss of the whole cost of the domestic wool clip, but higher prices for both wool and mutton.

REVIEW OF FORD'S REPORT BY JUDSON H. ROOT, OF HARTFORD, CONN.

In February, 1894, Hon. Worthington C. Ford, chief of the Bureau of Statistics in the Treasury Department, made a report, transmitted to Congress, on wool and woolen manufactures. It has not been possible to procure a copy, as it is not yet officially printed and accessible to the public, but newspaper reports, supposed to be accurate, give some of its conclusions, and to which Judson H. Root, an eminent wool merchant of Hartford, Conn., has made the following answer, and which is now presented because it seems necessary for use in the Senate:

The recent report upon wool and the manufactures of wool, with the conclusions reached by Hon. Worthington C. Ford, chief of the Bureau of Statistics in the Treasury Department is, to say the least, to a casual observer, somewhat misleading. Mr. Ford gives the wool clip of 1884 as 337,500,000 pounds, and that of 1893 as

364,152,666 pounds, a gain of about 8 per cent in nine years. He says, "In that period population increased about 20 per cent and the consumption of wool about 30 per cent."

He neglects to state that the tariff of 1883 reduced the rate of duty on wool some 11 per cent, and with a clip of 337,500,000 pounds in 1884 it gradually decreased until 1889 (when it was felt that duties would soon be increased), when the product was but 295,000,000 pounds—a decrease of 12½ per cent in five years—while from 1889 to 1893, under the McKinley act of 1890, with an increase in the duty of but 1 cent a pound, the product increased from 295,000,000 pounds in 1889 to 364,000,000 pounds in 1893, a gain of more than 23 per cent in four years.

Mr. Ford says, "Were this depression local, local remedies would apply, but it is general, and affects those countries where the advantages for sheep raising excel, as well as those where woolgrowing is a secondary matter, and even a by-product rather than an industry." What are the facts? Australia, South America, and Cape of Good Hope are the only countries which produce wool in such quantity as to seriously compete with the United States. That there has been a depression in wool throughout the world is admitted, but that the decline in value of merino wool, as a class, in no market of the world outside of the United States from April 1, 1893, to October 1, 1893, a period of six months, exceeded 5 per cent, while during the same period in the United States for merino wool the decline was from 33 to 40 per cent.

The decline in value in foreign markets during the year 1893 was very slight, and only affected certain kinds. The foreign wool, which competes with the wool grown west of the Mississippi River (which is now the largest wool-producing portion of the United States), shows really no decline, as the statistics of the London wool market—which market regulates the prices of wool for the world—just issued for the year 1893, which are hereto appended, show that Cape grease wool in February, 1893, was selling in London at 11 cents a pound. In May the same wool advanced to 12 cents, at which price it sold in October, 1893. Sidney grease wool sold in February, 1893, at 15 cents a pound, in May had advanced to 16 cents, at which price it held and sold in October, 1893. New Zealand grease, X bred, in February, 1893, sold at 19 cents, advanced to 20 cents in May, and in October, November, and December, 1893, sold at same price.

The above grades of foreign wools compete in grade and character with our domestic grown west of the Mississippi River. The same statistics quote the best scoured Port Philip (this is a grade which competes with our very fine Ohio, West Virginia, and Washington County, Pa., fleece), December, 1892, at 33 cents, and in May, 1893, the same wool sold at 36 cents, and gradually declined until October, November, and December, 1893, during which months the same wool sold at 34 cents a pound—1 cent above the price ruling twelve months previous.

Messrs. Helmith, Schwartse & Co. (which firm is considered authority), in their report issued January 9, 1894, hereto appended, reporting the London market of 1893, quote Australian Port Phillip average greasy, December 31, 1892, at 15 cents; the same wool, December 31, 1893, 15 cents. Australian Port Phillip average scoured, December 31, 1892, 31 cents, and December 31, 1893, 31 cents. Sidney average greasey, 14 cents, both December 31, 1892, and December 31, 1893. Cape wool, average 15½ cents, both December 31, 1892, and December 31, 1893, showing that for the twelve months ending January 1, 1894, the opening and closing prices were identical, while in the United States during the same period the decline was 30 to 40 per cent.

The decline during this period was very slight in foreign countries, hardly perceptible, while in this country it could be measured largely by the "free-wool" schedule which the "Wilson bill" offered the woolgrowers, and to which "local remedies would apply."

Comparing the increase in sheep in the United States from 1880 to 1890, foreign countries far outstrip the United States. After the reduction of duties—some 2 cents a pound by the tariff of 1883—the product of wool in the United States gradually declined until the McKinley act increased the duty 1 cent a pound in 1890; on the other hand, the product of foreign wool rapidly increased, as stated by Mr. Ford. He says: "Compare these percentages (of increase in the United States, some 6 per cent) with the increase of sheep in what is the great sheep country of the world—New South Wales. From 1880 to 1890 the number of head increased from 35,398,121 to 55,980,431, or 58·1 per cent." He omits stating that for 1891, 1892, and 1893, when the benefits of the McKinley act began to be felt in the United States, that in New South Wales the number of sheep decreased from 61,831,416 in 1892 to 58,080,114 in 1893—more than 6 per cent—while during the same period in the United States they increased from 43,000,000 in 1892 to 47,273,553 in 1893, an increase of nearly 10 per cent.

In the face of these facts, the statement of Mr. Ford seems unaccountable. The reasons given by Mr. Ford for the free admission of wool into the United States would seem to be the strongest arguments against such a course and prove conclu-

sively that in this country wool should not only be on the list for revenue, but aslo for "protection." Our very position in relation to other nations not only demands but requires it. The situation and conditions are entirely different with us than any other nation. (See Senate Miscellaneous Documents Nos. 35 and 77.)

Mr. Ford says: "That no commercial and industrial nation is self-sufficient in its supply of wool, or ever has been, since machinery was first employed in the manufacture of woolens."

Answer. None of the commercial and industrial nations excepting the United States ever were sufficient in their supply of cotton, wheat, beef, wool, and many other articles, necessary for home consumption, and why? Simply that their population is so dense and their land area so contracted that such a result is impossible. It is only in the broad realms of our own land where we have the necessary acreage. It is here we are capable, with proper tariff regulations, to supply double the wants of our own people with all agricultural products.

"That the sheep-growing industry is subject to the same fluctuations of prosperity and depression that effect every other industry."

Answer. There is no reason why the great law of nature should not govern this as well as all other industries, and that prosperity and depression should cause fluctuations is not strange.

That neither woolgrowing nor wool manufacturing is a local industry, unless shut in by artificial restriction on the free movement of exchange of the raw wool or manufactured products.

Answer. In the United States woolgrowing and manufacturing are national industries, the former being carried on in every State and Territory and the latter in nearly all. No other "commercial and industrial nation" is capable of producing all the wool required to supply the demand of its own people. With a proper consideration or protection for the labor entering into the product, the United States would soon furnish ample amount of wool for its own consumption.

That such restrictions are rarely placed upon the raw wool, but are generally upon the manufactured products. No other nation of commercial and industrial importance imposes as high duties on wool and woolens as the United States.

Answer. Such restrictions are rarely by other nations; and why? Because under no state of protection have they the necessary area of land to raise the amount required for home consumption. With their thickly settled country, other products are more profitable and they allow free entry of wool, as it does not compete with home products. England, France, Germany, Russia, Switzerland, Holland, and Belgium, outside the United States, comprise the countries of "great commercial and industrial importance." Russia does not grow merino wool, and Germany's product is mostly the carpet grade. It would seem ridiculous for these countries to place a restriction upon free entry of merino wool, and yet Russia does.

Free trade in England has driven every merino sheep from the country, and none but coarse-wool mutton sheep are now raised there. Why should England not have "free wool" when her own colonial possessions supply her, and are forced to ship it there, to be by her manufactured into goods and again returned, leaving the profit with England?

England could be placed in one corner of the State of Texas (Texas contains 262,290 square miles; England, 89,600) and then leave pasturage enough—counting only 2 sheep to the acre—to feed 221,043,200 sheep, five times what we now have in the United States, and more than enough to supply a population of 150,000,000 people with all the mutton and wool they would require.

France, with a population of 38,000,000 and only 204,000 square miles (58,000 less than the State of Texas), raised a little more than 100,000,000 pounds of wool—nearly her own consumption—while she imports nearly 450,000,000 pounds, giving her 550,000,000 pounds for her woolen manufacturers to work into goods, paying for labor less than one-third the wages paid in the United States for the same class of work. Consuming one-fourth the entire merino wool supply of the world, and exporting three-fourths of the same in the shape of manufactured goods, upon which her labor receives the profit. She admits raw wool free, but the moment the wool is dyed, combed, or even carded, it is taxed at 25 francs the hundred kilograms, and when it is both dyed and combed, even before it is spun, a duty of 37.50 francs the hundred kilograms is imposed. The moment imports interfere with the question of labor, that moment she imposes a duty.

England (89,000 square miles), Switzerland (15,992 square miles), Holland (12,648), Belgium (11,363), could all be inclosed within the borders of the State of Texas, and still leave pasturage (85,311,680 square miles), allowing two sheep to the acre, to feed 170,623,360 sheep, being nearly four times the amount now raised in the United States. The State of Montana could inclose the four nations within her borders and still have 10,426,480 acres of unoccupied land, and the Dakotas could furnish ample accommodation, leaving over 11,000,000 acres for other purposes, while Kansas and Nebraska,

the same conditions, would then have pasturage enough to accommodate the number of sheep now raised in the United States.

England, which imports free of duty the wool from her colonial possessions, and that of other countries during the year 1893, exported 362,000,000 pounds in the unmanufactured state, and of the manufactured product more than $110,000,000 worth. (Helmuth, Schwartz & Co.'s wool circular, January 9, 1894, hereto appended.) Why should England desire protection on wool?

France, England, Switzerland, Holland, and Belgium, while producing less than one-fifteenth the merino wool of the world, manufactures into goods more than one-half the product of the world, thereby giving employment to a vast army of laborers, and selling to the outside world (of which the United States is the largest purchaser) three-fourths of their entire manufactured product.

These five nations, France, England, Switzerland, Holland, and Belgium, covering a territory (333,180 square miles) 47,628,800 acres less than the combined area of the two States of Texas and Montana, want "free wool" simply because they can not raise it, but do have the cheap labor to manufacture it into goods to sell to the United States, thereby preventing the laborers of our own country manufacturing goods for their own consumption, unless they will accept the wages and come down to the living level of the laborers of these nations.

With the utter impossibility of producing the merino wool, which they require for their own consumption, with their great surplus of cheap labor, is it strange that England, France, Switzerland, Holland, Belgium, and Germany desire free entry of wool?

Where lives there a person with one drop of American blood in his veins who for a moment will consent to the comparison of these nations, with their masses of poor, ignorant laborers and their necessary requirements of "free wool," to that of our own country, with its ample facilities for producing and manufacturing all the wool and goods necessary for our wants? True, the woolgrowers and the woolen-goods manufacturers in the United States deserve and require a liberal degree of protection from the cheap labor in Europe, that children born in this country shall receive the education which an American citizen should have. Call it protection or revenue; call it what you may, wool is the only one product of the United States which is indispensable and absolutely necessary for clothing each and every one of our 65,000,000 population. Wool and clothing each must have. Why not allow their own laborers to produce and supply?

The physician does not prescribe the same kind of medicine to each patient and for every kind of disease. What suits one is not adapted to another. "Free wool" may suit nonproducing countries who have a surplus of cheap labor to work it into goods for export, but for the United States a certain degree of protection is required, not only to supply a revenue to the Government, but that our American laborers may not be forced to live and bring up their children as do other nations. Mr. Ford says "That no legislation short of prohibition of foreign competition has availed to maintain prices in the face of the rapid increase in the world's supply."

Answer. Self-preservation is the first law of nature. With the exception of rice and sugar, wool is the only agricultural product not overproduced in the United States, and as labor constitutes over 80 per cent of the cost of wool; and as, for reasons well known to all, the United States can not compete with foreign countries in raising wool, would it prove such a terrible thing if imports of merino wool should be prohibited? *

During the past ten years we have imported less than 30,000,000 pounds per annum of merino wool, in the unmanufactured state, which amount would probably not have covered the increase in the United States in the year 1894 had the McKinley Act have been left untrammeled.

The prices of domestic and imported wools have ruled higher in the last ten years in the United States than elsewhere; but this has not proved of advantage to either woolgrower or manufacturer of woolens.

Answer. So have wages "ruled higher in the last ten years in the United States than elsewhere." There has been no time during the past ten years but what the wages paid in the United States for the same class of labor would purchase from two to four times the quantity of wool, with its very high price, which could be purchased by laborers in other countries from the product of their labor, even at the very low price of wool ruling there. The high price for wool in the United States *has* "proved of advantage" to all the people by the increase in sheep, wool, and wealth.

That from 1889 to 1893 protection did prove of great advantage to the woolgrower is an admitted fact, during which four years the wool product increased from 295,000,000 to 364,000,000 pounds—more than 23 per cent. The woolgrower and man-

* Whenever our flocks are increased, as they may be under adequate protection, to supply all needed wools of every kind the *prohibition* of all imports would be a blessing.—W. L.

ıfacturer had entered upon an era of remarkable prosperity when the "Wilson bill" ıtruck them like a cyclone, and with a more devastating effect. During the same period the woolen manufacturers experienced a term of prosperity never before ɔqualed, and the wage-earner received more for hire than at any time in the history ɔf the nation, and the savings-bank deposits attest the prosperity of the laboring ɔlasses.

That the present depression is as marked in Europe, Asia, and Australia as in the United States, and can not therefore be due to any local fact or condition applying ɔnly to the United States.

Answer. That the decline of 33 to 40 per cent in the value of wool in the United States from April 1, 1893, to October 1, 1893, when the class of wool comparing in grade, during the same period, in the London market, did not perceptibly decline, can not be wholly due to the great depression in Europe, Asia, and Australia, but is due to "local fact or condition applying only to the United States," and for which great decline the Wilson bill, which removes 11 cents a pound duty, is largely responsible.

That foreign nations possessing wool manufacturing industries gain by a free choice of wools in a free market.

Answer. "Foreign nations possessing wool manufacturing industries" but *not* the *capacity* of *producing* wool should gain by "free wool." There is no foreign nation "possessing the wool manufacturing industry" who can *on her own soil* possibly produce more wool than required for her own consumption, to say nothing about the employment of her vast army of laborers, in manufacturing goods for export. Certainly all such countries would gain by the free entry of foreign wool, as it would have no home competition. The United States alone of the nations of the earth has the capacity of producing the quantity of wool necessary for the making, and the machinery required for manufacturing the goods, to fully supply and clothe our 65,000,000 people. Such an industry should be guarded until a surplus is produced.

That the experience of European nations would show that the free entry of foreign wool has not destroyed their sheep-raising industry; that no outside competition has or can completely destroy it, or even injure it in the long run, where reasonable effort is made to maintain quality of clip.

Answer. Free trade in England has driven every merino sheep from the island. None but the coarse-wool mutton sheep are now raised there. France is the only manufacturing European nation pretending to raise merino wool, and she produces it more as a by-product than an industry. So that the free entry of merino wool into the European nations has not "destroyed their sheep-raising industry," from the fact that they raise no merino wool to come into competition, and, therefore, it could not affect them unfavorably.

That the shifting of wool-producing centers—meaning by the center, the country of wool production dominating the commercial markets—is inevitable, and can not be stayed or prevented by legislation.

Answer. The United States to-day produces one-fifth the merino clothing wool of the world. With continued favored legislation, she would within ten years produce one-third. With the Wilson bill becoming a law, within five years under its "free trade" rule, we should produce less than one-twentieth, showing conclusively that legislation can "shift the wool-producing centers."

From 1884 to 1889 the removal of 11 per cent of the duty caused a decrease of 12½ per cent, while from 1889 to 1893, the slight increase in duty of 1 cent a pound caused an increase in the clip in four years of over 23 per cent—1889, 295,000,000 pounds; 1893, 364,000,000 pounds.

THE UNPUBLISHED REPORT OF HON. S. G. BROCK, CHIEF OF THE BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF THE U. S. TREASURY DEPARTMENT DURING THE LAST YEAR OF PRESIDENT HARRISON'S ADMINISTRATION.

The following correspondence is presented as explanatory of the report above mentioned:

U. S. SENATE,
Washington, D. C., October 25, 1893.

MY DEAR SIR: Yours of the 23d is received. At the close of the last session a concurrent resolution was passed ordering the printing of a new edition of the special report of the chief of the Bureau of Statistics relating to wool and manufactures of wool published by Congress in 1888, with the matter contained therein brought down to date. This would seem to cover the matter referred to by you. The document is not yet printed.

Very truly, yours,

JOHN SHERMAN.

Hon. WM. LAWRENCE.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, BUREAU OF STATISTICS,
Washington, D. C., Nov. 11, 1888.

DEAR SIR: I have your letter of the 9th instant. * * * You are under a misapprehension as to Mr. Brock's Wool Report. Mr. Brock suggested to Congress that a new edition be prepared, and a member introduced a resolution *providing* for the printing, but not calling for any report. The transmission was, therefore, in the discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury, and, as was proper, left to his determination. Further, the report never reached the Secretary of the Treasury, and was left in this Bureau by Mr. Brock in such a condition that I could not conscientiously recommend the publication. Anyone who is at all familiar with Mr. Brock's statistical methods would hesitate to assume the responsibility of publishing anything that bore his signature, and I take too much pride in the work of this Bureau to compel it to assume the discredit of his statistical labors. In the position taken on the wool report we have the support of leading wool authorities, and it is founded upon purely statistical reasons.

In the coming year I hope to bring the tables down to date, and shall ask Congress to print. At present there is too much work to be done in this Bureau of greater importance to warrant the undertaking of such a labor. The special must always give way to the general; and only thus can this short-handed Bureau accomplish the one-fourth part of what is expected of it. It is in the interest of all concerned to have full, accurate, and entirely correct statistics, and with the immense detail of our import and export trade there is more than enough to occupy the attention of the Bureau, especially in the face of extensive changes in methods and classification to be introduced. The figures are published annually, officially; they are published monthly, officially, and if an outside compiler takes such figures he is using official returns and can refer to the official report.

Yours, respectfully,

WORTHINGTON C. FORD,
Chief of Bureau.

Hon. WM. LAWRENCE,
Bellefontaine, Ohio.

CHAPTER SECOND.

mpiled by William Lawrence, President of the National Woolgrowers' Association, March 1, 1894.]

RT FIRST.—STATISTICS OF SHEEP.
RT SECOND.—WOOL PRODUCTION IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES.
RT THIRD.—WOOL IMPORTS.
RT FOURTH.—A WOOL RETROSPECT, MAY, 1892.

1. *Protection Protects.*

RT FIFTH.—PRICES OF WOOLS AT DIFFERENT PERIODS.
RT SIXTH.—IMPORTS, SUPPLY, CONSUMPTION, ETC., OF WOOL IN THE UNITED KINGDOM, 1888–1892.
RT SEVENTH.—WOOL INDUSTRY IN FRANCE.
RT EIGHTH.—CONSUMPTION OF WOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1840–1890, AND SINCE.
RT NINTH.—*The accuracy of Statistics in U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, Second Session.*

A. PART FIRST—STATISTICS OF SHEEP.

These statistics are embraced in schedules hereto annexed, arranged in classes, signated by LETTERS, and divided into sections indicated by Roman numerals.

IEEP—NUMBER AND VALUES.

I. *Sheep in the world.*
II. *Number of sheep in the United States, 1868 to 1894, inclusive.*
III. *Estimated prices of sheep in each State January, 1894, under one year of age and over that age.*
IV. *Number and value of sheep in each State January, 1894.*
V. *Number of sheep in each State and Territory, according to the census of 1890*
VI. *The number of flockmasters in the United States.*
VII. *Number and value of sheep in the United States 1810–1892*
a. *Estimate of the Department of Agriculture erroneous.*
b. *The census returns—errors corrected.*
VIII. PROTECTION PROTECTS—*And see this Document, chapter first: see Justice Bateman & Co., Wool Circular therein.*
1. *The inaccuracy of North's statistics of sheep.*
2. *Evidence of Switzler, Chief of Bureau of Statistics, U. S. Treasury Department.*
3. *William Lloyd Garrison's free-wool pamphlet admits it.*
5. *Other facts.*
6. *Democratic evidence—William M. Springer.*
7. *Statistics by S. N. D. North prove it.*
8. *Why wool declined in price under the McKinley act of October 1, 1890.*
IX. FREE WOOL WILL RUIN AMERICAN SHEEP HUSBANDRY.
1. *By imports of wool.*
2a. *And with free mutton, by imports of mutton from South America and Canada.*
b. *Australian mutton will drive American meats out of Europe.*

B. PART SECOND—WOOL PRODUCTION IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES.

I. *The world's production of wool, 1800–1850.*
II. *The production of wool in the United States and in the Argentine Republic from 1800 to 1890 by decades.*
III. *Production of wools in Europe and Africa from 1800 to 1890, by decades.*
IV. *Production in Australasia and Asia 1800 to 1890, by decades.*
V. *World's production by countries, 1887 and 1891.*
VI. *World's production 1881–1890, inclusive.*
VII. *Australasian wool product and value, 1872–1887.*
VIII. *Increase of wool product, 1870 to 1890, in Australia, Argentine Republic, United States, Asia, and Africa.*
IX. *World's production of wool, 1870–1893.*
X. *Wool product of each State and Territory of the United States, by decades, 1840 to 1870, and since.*
a Also wool imports.

C. PART THIRD.—IMPORTS OF WOOL IN THE UNITED STATES.

I. *Imports of wool, 1884–1893, with countries of production so far as shown by* DIRECT IMPORTS.
II. *Imports of Australasian and other wools into the United States and other countries.*
III. *Imports of China wools into the United States:*
1. *The Boston Wool and Cotton Reporter of January 14, 1892, as to the capacity of China to supply wools.*
2. *The* DIRECT *imports into the United States by years since 1869, when the first was imported.*
3. *The memorial of Hon. Columbus Delano and William Lawrence as to.*
4. *All used for the manufacture of clothing.*
(*a*) *So admitted by the free wool Boston Wool and Cotton Reporter of June 15, 1893.*
IV. *Inadequate protection no better than free wool.*
1. *The classification of China wool as third class makes the effect of the McKinley act as inadequate protection.*
2. *The New York Tribune on sham protection.*
3. *Blackston shows how England gave adequate protection by prohibiting the importation of woolen goods.*
4. *Prohibition of imports* NOT *an extreme measure.*

D. PART FOURTH.—A WOOL RETROSPECT, MAY, 1892.

I. *A retrospect of the wool industry.*
II. *Number and value of sheep in United States 1871–1892, and wool product.*
III. *Imports and exports of wool 1870–1891.*
IV. *Imports for seven decades, 1822–1890.*
V. *Imports, 1880–1890.*
VI. *Value of net imports of wool by decades 1830–1890.*
VII. *Imports and production in France, United Kingdom, United States, and Germany.*
VIII. *French tariff.*

E. PART FIFTH.—PRICES OF WOOLS AT DIFFERENT PERIODS.

I. *Boston prices, 1868 to 1891.*
II. *Boston prices, 1824 to 1886.*
(*a*) Increase of weight of fleece 1840 to 1880.
III. *Prices in England 1818 to 1887.*
IV. *Prices in England 1873 and 1891.*
V. *Boston prices June 30, 1892, to June 30, 1893.*
VI. Prices March 1, 1893, to November 1, 1893.

F. PART SIXTH.—IMPORTS, SUPPLY, CONSUMPTION, ETC., OF WOOL IN UNITED KINGDOM, 1888–1892.

G. PART SEVENTH.—WOOL INDUSTRY IN FRANCE.

E. PART EIGHTH.—CONSUMPTION OF WOOL IN UNITED STATES, BY CENSUS YEARS, 1840-1890.

PART NINTH.—THE ACCURACY OF STATISTICS IN U. S. SENATE MIS. DOC. NO. 77, FIFTY-THIRD CONGRESS, SECOND SESSION.

1. *Vindicated by article of William Lawrence in the Worcester (Mass.) Spy of March 21, 1894.*
2. *The amount of capital in sheep husbandry.*
3. *The number of flock masters in the United States.*

A. PART FIRST.—SHEEP IN THE WORLD—VALUE IN PLACES SPECIFIED.

I. Sheep in the World.

For sheep in the world, see U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, p. 55; Switzler's U. S. Treasury Department Wool Report, 1887, p. 226; North's Wool Book for 1892, pp. 94, 95; Report No. 101, New Series, Division of Statistics, U. S. Department of Agriculture, February 13, 1893.

The report of the statistician of the Department of Agriculture No. 37, January and February, 1887, will be found in Switzler's U. S. Treasury Department Wool Report for 1888, page 226.

The report No. 101 for 1893 gives the following recapitulation of farm animals:

Grand division.	Cattle.	Horses.	Mules and asses.	Sheep.	Swine.	Goats.
North America	57,887,438	17,717,139	2,391,738	51,292,797	48,059,045	45,536
South America	57,610,183	5,486,036	1,666,225	96,242,137	2,723,516	2,695,697
Europe	104,430,093	36,483,400	3,155,297	187,144,203	49,164,341	18,941,295
Asia	60,846,904	4,279,241	1,079,723	39,922,366	488,937	1,646,934
Africa	6,094,883	1,238,574	390,059	35,589,208	546,909	12,566,612
Australasia	11,872,360	1,786,644	.....	124,645,606	1,156,325	116,257
Oceanica	131,796	4,066	110	12,607	33,151	13,102
Grand total	298,873,657	66,995,100	8,683,152	534,848,924	102,172,224	36,025,433

II. Number of Sheep in the United States, 1868–1894.

☞It is to be observed that there are *several sources* of statistics as to sheep and wool product, as:

(1) The Census reports.

(2) The estimates on returns made to the Department of Agriculture.

(3) The Treasury Department reports.

(4) Those of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers; and

(5) Those of other eminent experts.

The differences will be found generally given in the Treasury Department Wool Reports of 1887 and 1888.

U. S. Department of Agriculture,
Division of Statistics,
Washington, D. C., February 12, 1894.

Sir: I have the honor to transmit, for publication, results of the annual returns relative to the number of farm animals, their increase or decrease, as well as their value in the several States and Territories.

The tables of numbers and values are presented in full and shows decrease in the number of horses, sheep, and swine and an increase in the number of mules, milch cows, oxen, and other cattle. There is also presented an estimate of the rate of increase or decrease in the number of farm animals relatively to each other and to population.

Respectfully,

HENRY A. ROBINSON,
Statistician.

Hon. J. STERLING MORTON,
Secretary.

I. REPORT ON FARM ANIMALS.

HORSES.

The returns of the number of horses show an increase of the same in 30 out of the 47 States and Territories, not including Oklahoma and the Indian reservations; a decrease in 17 of the States and Territories, and a general decrease as compared with the returns of January, 1893, of 125,663—the total number of horses in January last year being 16,206,802 against 16,081,139 same date in 1894. An increase is shown in all the New England and Middle States with the exception of New Jersey. In the Southern States decreases have occurred only in the States of Alabama, Louisiana, and Texas. The Western States present a numerical decrease in Ohio, Michigan, Illinois, Wisconsin, Kansas, South Dakota, and the Mountain Division—in the States of Montana, Wyoming, Nevada, Idaho, and the Territory of Utah. The States of California and Oregon of the Pacific slope also show decrease. Prices have declined in all the States and Territories excepting Rhode Island and Idaho. The average range is from $15.80 in New Mexico to $95.43 in Rhode Island, the average value being $47.83. In addition to the general depression, the cause of the low prices of horses is attributed to the rapid substitution of electrical and other motors in the street-car service of towns and cities. There has been a slight general increase in the number of mules, the aggregate in January, 1894, being 2,352,231, against 2,331,128 in January, 1893, an increase of a little over 21,000. The average value of this animal has declined from $70.68 in January, 1893, to $62.17 the same date the present year.

MILCH COWS.

There is a tendency to an increase in the number and value of milch cows, though as yet slight, so far as indicated by the figures, in spite of the financial depression, owing, doubtless, to the firmness in price which dairy products have maintained in the market. The estimated present numbers are 16,487,400, against 16,424,087 in January, 1893; average price, $21.77, against $21.75, and aggregate average value, $358,998,661, against $357,299,785 in January last year (1893).

OXEN AND OTHER CATTLE.

In the case of oxen and other cattle there is presented an increase in numbers over last year, but a slight decline in price and aggregate value. The number of these reported in January, 1893, was 35,954,196,

at an average price of $15.24 and total value of $547,882,204, while the returns of January, 1894, show numbers to have increased to 36,608,168. The average price, however, has fallen, being $14.66, against $15.24, and total value $536,789,747, against $547,882,104, a reduction in value of this class of stock of $1,092,457, and in average price 58 cents per head, as against the year reported, January, 1893.

SHEEP.

Sheep have suffered a rather abrupt decline in numbers, price, and, of course, aggregate value since January, 1893. The ravages of dogs are generally referred to by correspondents as one of the checks upon the progress of this valuable industry. Although swine have, like sheep, fallen off in numbers to a considerable extent, the decline in price is not so marked, and a reaction toward higher prices is everywhere discernible.

COMPARISONS AND VALUES OF FARM ANIMALS.

In addition to the general financial depression, the scarcity of feed is assigned as an important factor in producing the decline both in numbers and values of farm animals. The numbers and values are compared in the following tables:

Number of farm animals in 1893 and 1894.

Stock.	1893.	1894.	Increase or decrease.	Per cent of increase or decrease.
Horses	16,206,802	16,081,139	−125,663	−·78
Mules	2,331,128	2,352,231	+21,103	+·91
Milch cows	16,424,087	16,487,400	+63,313	+·39
Oxen and other cattle	35,954,196	36,608,168	+653,972	+1·82
Sheep	47,273,553	45,048,017	−2,225,536	−4·71
Swine	46,094,807	45,206,498	−888,309	−1·93
Total	164,284,573	161,783,453	−2,501,120	−1·53

The average value per head for all ages for all classes of animals, as compared with values of 1893, with increase or decrease, is here given:

Value per head of farm animals in 1893 and 1894.

Stock.	1893.	1894.	Increase or decrease.	Per cent of increase or decrease.
Horses	$61.22	$47.83	−$13.39	−21·9
Mules	70.68	62.17	−8.51	−12
Milch cows	21.73	21.77	+.04	.....
Oxen and other cattle	15.24	14.66	−.58	−3·8
Sheep	2.66	1.98	−.68	−25·6
Swine	6.41	5.98	−.43	−6·7

The aggregate value is shown by the following table to be less by $312,266,495 than that of 1893. Decrease in the number of horses coincides, as will be seen, with a large diminution of value. Mules have increased in numbers less than 1 per cent, but decreased in price per head 12 per cent and in aggregate value over 11 per cent. Milch cows have increased in aggregate value and numbers but slightly.

Oxen and other cattle show increase in number but decrease in value, while sheep and hogs have declined in both respects. The following statement gives a comparison of aggregate values of two enumerations:

Comparison of aggregate values of farm animals in 1893 and 1894.

Stock.	1893.	1894.	Increase or decrease.	Per cent of increase or decrease.
Horses	$992, 225, 185	$769, 224, 799	—$223, 000, 386	—22.5
Mules	164, 763, 751	146, 232, 811	—18, 530, 940	—11.2
Milch cows	356, 876, 353	358, 998, 661	+2, 122, 308	+.59
Oxen and other cattle	547, 882, 204	536, 789, 747	—11, 092, 457	—2
Sheep	125, 909, 264	89, 186, 110	—36, 723, 154	—29.2
Swine	295, 426, 492	270, 384, 626	—25, 041, 866	—8.5
Total	2, 483, 083, 249	2, 170, 816, 754	—312, 266, 495	—12.6

The following table shows the Chicago market prices in the first week in January, 1893 and 1894:

Chicago market price per 100 pounds.

Species and grades.	1893.		1894.	
Cattle:				
Choice shipping	$5.30 to	$6.00	$5.34 to	$5.94
Fair to good	3.90	4.00	3.42	4.02
Sheep:				
Native	3.20	5.40	1.25	3.75
Western	3.00	5.25	1.75	3.50
Hogs:				
Rough packing	7.00	7.20	4.97	5.13
Heavy packing	7.25	7.55	5.18	5.43

The following table shows the changes in the price of swine in Chicago on the days named in the years 1893 and 1894:

Prices of swine at Chicago in 1893 and 1894.

Swine.	Jan. 6, 1894.		Jan. 6, 1893.		Feb. 6, 1894.	
Pigs	$4.10 to	$5.20	$5.90 to	$7.10	$4.30 to	$5.30
Light	5.05	5.35	6.95	7.35	5.00	5.25
Rough packing	4.90	5.05	7.00	7.20	4.90	5.05
Mixed	5.05	5.35	7.05	7.45	5.05	5.30
Heavy	5.10	5.35	7.25	7.55	5.10	5.25

ESTIMATED RATE OF INCREASE OR DECREASE IN THE NUMBER OF FARM ANIMALS IN THE UNITED STATES WITH REFERENCE TO EACH OTHER AND TO POPULATION.

The following is an attempt to estimate the average annual rate of increase or decrease in the number of farm animals in the two decades, 1870–1880 and 1880-1890, and for the triennium, 1890–1893, relatively to the increase of population during the same periods and to each other. The years 1870, 1880, and 1890 were chosen because the figures of population are available for these years. The calculations are based on the

numbers of farm animals as estimated by the Department of Agriculture.

The rate of increase in the number of horses was more or less uniform in the two decades, 1870–1880 and 1880–1890, the average annual rate for the former period being 3·11 per cent and for the latter 2·41 per cent. In the triennium, 1890–1893, there were larger fluctuations—a small decrease in the first year and a proportionately large increase during the following the two years—the average annual rate of increase for the period being 4·59 per cent.

The number of mules increased with more or less regularity during the two decades 1870–1880 and 1880–1890, the average annual rate being 3·9 per cent for the former and 3·03 per cent for the latter. In the triennium 1890–1893 there was a decrease in the first year and an increase in the following two years, making the number at the end of these three years nearly equal to that at the beginning.

The number of milch cows increased in the three periods under consideration at varying rates, the average annual rate for the first decade being 1·77 per cent; for the second decade, 2·87 per cent, and for the last three years, 0·98.

The increase in the number of oxen and other cattle since 1870 has been very irregular. In the first six years the number remained nearly stationary; the next three years showed a large proportional increase, and the two years 1879–1881 a small decrease. A very great increase occurred from 1881 to 1883, and the remainder of the second decade showed a smaller gradual increase. In the triennium 1890–1893 the number of cattle increased somewhat during the first two years, and in the third year fell below the number at the beginning of the period.

The number of sheep and swine presents many fluctuations, which are not exhibited by a statement of the average annual rate of increase for the three periods under consideration.

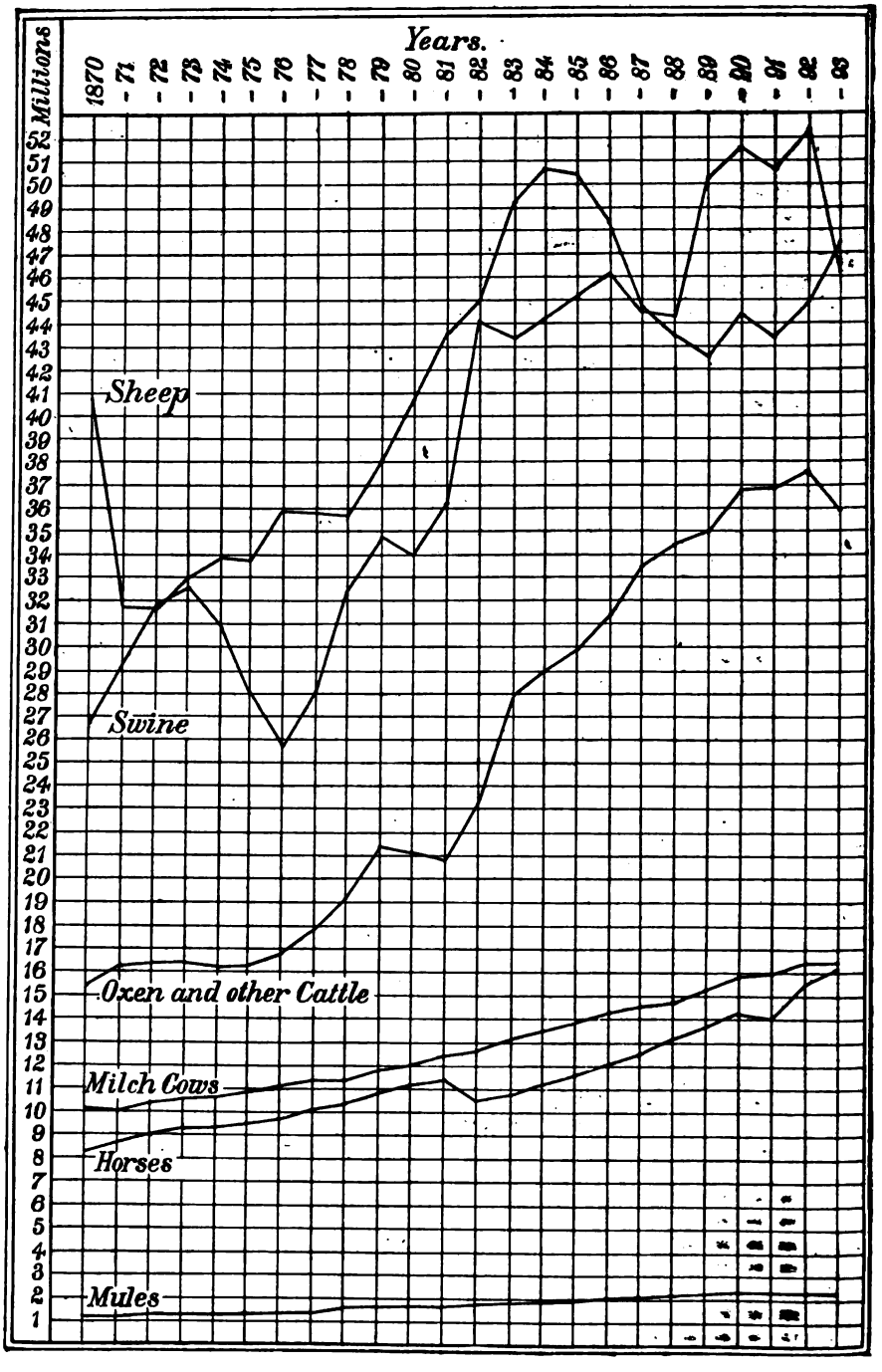
In the total number of these farm animals the average annual rate of increase during the decade 1870–1880 was 1·67 per cent. In the following decade it rose to 3·17 per cent, and in the triennium 1890–1893 there was an average annual decrease of two-tenths of 1 per cent.

The following statement presents in detail the results of this investigation:

II.—Average Annual Rate of Increase or Decrease in the Number of Farm Animals in the United States.

Period.	Population.	Horses.	Mules.	Milch cows.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
1870–'80	2·66	3·11	3·9	3·28
1880–'90	2·24	2·41	3·03	2·87
1890–'93	.....	4·59	.....	·98

Period.	Population.	Oxen and other cattle.	Sheep.	Swine.	Total farm animals.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
1870–'80	2·66	3·28	—·02	2·44	1·67
1880–'90	2·24	5·66	·84	4·25	3.17
1890–'93	.....	—·82	2·16	—3·83	—·20


Years.
Millions
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88
89
90
91
92
93
Sheep
Swine
Oxen and other Cattle
Milch Cows
Horses
Mules

r the purpose of comparison the number and value of the various als of the farms in the United States are given for the series of 1868 to 1894, inclusive. The accompanying diagram shows the arative number of farm animals and the relative increase or ase for each year of the period 1870–1893, inclusive.

NUMBER AND VALUE OF FARM ANIMALS IN THE UNITED STATES FOR THE YEARS 1868–1894.

nuary 1—	Horses.		Mules.		Milch cows.	
	Number.	Value.	Number.	Value.	Number.	Value.
.....	5,756,940	$432,696,226	855,685	$66,415,769	8,691,568	$319,681,153
.....	6,332,793	533,024,787	921,662	98,386,359	9,247,714	361,752,676
.....	8,248,800	671,319,461	1,179,500	128,584,796	10,095,600	394,940,745
.....	8,702,000	683,257,587	1,242,300	126,127,786	10,023,000	374,179,093
.....	8,990,900	659,707,916	1,276,300	121,027,316	10,303,500	329,408,983
.....	9,222,470	684,463,957	1,310,000	124,658,085	10,575,900	314,358,931
.....	9,333,800	666,327,406	1,339,350	119,501,859	10,705,300	299,609,309
.....	9,504,200	646,370,939	1,393,750	111,502,713	10,906,800	311,080,824
.....	9,735,300	632,446,985	1,414,500	106,565,114	11,085,400	320,346,728
.....	10,155,400	610,206,631	1,443,500	99,480,976	11,260,800	307,743,211
.....	10,329,700	600,813,681	1,637,500	104,322,939	11,300,100	298,499,866
.....	10,938,700	573,254,808	1,713,100	96,033,971	11,826,400	256,953,928
.....	11,201,800	613,296,611	1,729,500	105,948,319	12,027,000	279,899,420
.....	11,429,626	667,954,325	1,720,731	120,096,164	12,368,653	296,277,060
.....	10,521,554	615,824,914	1,835,166	130,945,378	12,611,032	326,480,310
.....	10,838,111	765,041,308	1,871,079	148,732,390	13,125,685	396,575,405
.....	11,169,683	833,734,400	1,914,126	161,214,976	13,501,206	423,486,649
.....	11,564,572	852,282,947	1,972,569	162,497,097	13,904,722	412,903,093
.....	12,077,657	860,823,208	2,052,593	163,381,096	14,235,388	389,985,523
.....	12,496,744	901,685,755	2,117,141	167,057,538	14,522,083	378,789,589
.....	13,172,936	946,096,154	2,191,727	174,853,563	14,856,414	366,252,173
.....	13,663,294	982,194,827	2,257,574	179,444,481	15,298,625	366,226,376
.....	14,213,837	978,516,562	2,331,027	182,394,099	15,952,883	352,152,133
.....	14,056,750	941,823,222	2,296,532	178,847,370	16,019,591	346,397,900
.....	15,498,140	1,007,593,636	2,314,699	174,882,070	16,416,351	351,378,132
.....	16,206,802	992,225,185	2,331,128	164,763,751	16,424,087	357,299,785
.....	16,081,139	769,224,799	2,352,231	146,232,811	16,487,400	358,998,661

.1—	Oxen and other cattle.		Sheep.*		Swine.		Total value farm animals.
	Number.	Value.	Number.	Value.	Number.	Value.	
.....	11,942,484	$249,144,599	38,991,912	$98,407,809	24,317,258	$110,766,266	$1,277,111,822
.....	12,185,385	306,211,473	37,724,279	82,139,979	23,316,476	146,188,755	1,527,704,029
.....	15,388,500	346,926,440	40,853,000	93,364,433	26,751,400	187,191,502	1,822,327,377
.....	16,212,200	369,940,056	31,851,000	74,035,837	29,457,500	182,602,352	1,810,142,711
.....	16,389,800	321,562,693	31,679,300	88,771,197	31,796,300	138,733,828	1,659,211,933
.....	16,413,800	329,298,755	33,002,400	97,922,350	32,632,050	133,729,615	1,684,431,693
.....	16,218,100	310,649,803	33,928,200	88,690,569	30,860,900	134,565,526	1,619,944,472
.....	16,313,400	304,858,859	33,783,600	94,320,642	28,062,200	149,869,234	1,618,012,221
.....	16,785,300	319,623,509	35,935,300	93,666,318	25,726,800	175,070,484	1,647,719,138
.....	17,956,100	307,105,386	35,804,200	80,892,683	28,077,100	171,077,196	1,576,506,083
.....	19,223,300	329,543,703	35,740,500	80,603,062	32,262,500	160,838,532	1,574,620,783
.....	21,408,100	329,541,327	38,123,800	79,023,984	34,766,100	110,613,044	1,445,523,062
.....	21,231,000	341,761,154	40,765,900	90,230,537	34,034,100	145,781,515	1,576,917,556
.....	20,937,702	362,861,509	43,576,899	104,070,759	36,247,603	170,535,435	1,721,795,252
.....	23,280,238	463,069,499	45,016,224	106,594,954	44,122,200	263,543,195	1,906,459,250
.....	28,046,077	611,549,109	49,237,291	124,365,835	43,270,086	291,951,221	2,338,215,268
.....	29,046,101	683,229,054	50,626,626	119,902,706	44,200,893	246,301,139	2,467,868,924
.....	29,866,573	694,382,913	50,360,243	107,960,050	45,142,657	226,401,683	2,456,428,383
.....	31,275,242	661,956,274	48,322,331	92,443,867	46,092,043	196,569,894	2,365,159,862
.....	33,511,750	663,137,926	44,759,314	89,872,839	44,612,836	200,043,291	2,400,586,938
.....	34,378,363	611,750,520	43,544,755	89,279,926	44,346,525	220,811,082	2,409,043,418
.....	35,032,417	597,236,812	42,599,079	90,640,369	50,301,592	291,307,193	2,507,050,058
.....	36,849,024	560,625,137	44,336,072	100,659,761	51,602,780	243,418,336	2,418,766,028
.....	36,875,648	544,127,908	43,431,136	108,397,447	50,625,106	210,193,923	2,329,787,770
.....	37,651,239	570,749,155	44,938,365	116,121,290	52,398,019	241,031,415	2,461,755,698
.....	35,954,196	547,882,204	47,273,553	125,909,264	46,094,807	295,426,492	2,483,506,681
.....	36,608,168	536,789,747	45,048,017	89,186,110	45,206,498	270,384,626	2,170,816,754

ot-note by William Lawrence. These figures differ from the *Census returns* somewhat. For s returns see Switzler's report as Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, Treasury Department, 1887,

Estimated prices of animals on farms and ranches in January, 1894.

States and Territories.	Horses.				Mules.				Milch cows.
	Under 1 year old.	Between 1 and 2 years old.	Between 2 and 3 years old.	Over 3 years old.	Under 1 year old.	Between 1 and 2 years old.	Between 2 and 3 years old.	Over 3 years old.	
Maine	$23.93	$35.18	$54.67	$75.78	.....	.....	.....	.....	$21.37
New Hampshire	21.63	35.38	50.13	67.50	.....	.....	.....	.....	21.81
Vermont	20.90	32.85	46.30	70.30	.....	.....	.....	.....	25.25
Massachusetts	29.20	44.00	66.17	78.00	.....	.....	.....	.....	32.50
Rhode Island	39.20	60.00	80.00	102.25	.....	.....	.....	.....	36.00
Connecticut	29.06	45.56	72.25	101.37	.....	.....	.....	.....	28.94
New York	27.15	41.94	62.43	85.93	$27.73	$42.55	$63.91	$86.79	25.78
New Jersey	35.71	55.36	75.21	97.50	40.00	53.00	92.50	105.42	35.20
Pennsylvania	24.85	40.17	60.27	80.76	31.40	43.92	74.28	92.69	25.55
Delaware	18.50	22.50	45.75	60.00	20.50	44.50	80.00	90.00	24.50
Maryland	24.53	39.67	60.00	80.33	30.67	49.92	75.62	102.09	23.63
Virginia	23.52	35.26	52.30	70.12	27.53	41.57	64.05	83.17	18.68
North Carolina	30.01	45.94	66.32	84.40	32.88	48.95	73.40	92.16	14.99
South Carolina	28.06	47.78	67.78	90.21	32.06	52.94	78.53	106.84	20.47
Georgia	30.10	45.27	64.16	86.06	34.03	52.21	76.83	99.71	16.44
Florida	24.56	39.17	54.74	78.75	26.67	43.75	68.33	97.81	13.68
Alabama	22.74	35.17	50.14	67.92	26.03	40.63	60.09	76.56	12.45
Mississippi	20.38	29.47	42.45	61.59	25.83	37.59	54.14	75.21	12.91
Louisiana	15.17	23.51	33.88	57.76	21.19	33.09	56.09	89.55	16.50
Texas	11.91	17.39	24.50	35.73	20.71	29.52	41.54	56.23	13.84
Arkansas	20.82	28.61	40.29	55.66	27.50	38.50	53.96	73.00	10.76
Tennessee	29.05	42.20	56.76	70.87	32.60	47.25	64.59	79.82	16.45
West Virginia	21.69	32.49	45.43	63.17	25.13	37.31	52.95	72.52	19.15
Kentucky	27.15	40.08	58.61	71.66	30.57	44.62	63.37	76.54	20.20
Ohio	23.85	35.87	55.32	70.67	25.59	37.70	52.19	71.36	25.94
Michigan	25.83	42.14	55.06	75.40	28.00	44.00	62.00	85.00	28.27
Indiana	24.65	34.92	47.84	64.33	27.17	39.44	55.10	71.24	24.16
Illinois	20.29	29.65	41.94	57.00	24.74	34.63	48.34	65.64	25.12
Wisconsin	23.72	36.07	50.86	72.87	23.83	36.83	51.97	72.76	24.34
Minnesota	22.21	36.60	52.31	73.74	25.22	41.04	57.01	79.57	19.42
Iowa	18.82	26.97	39.45	57.30	21.73	31.73	46.34	65.89	23.57
Missouri	18.84	27.07	37.20	50.23	24.23	34.34	48.08	64.20	17.67
Kansas	16.79	24.93	34.95	49.87	21.57	31.82	44.71	63.84	18.15
Nebraska	16.30	24.36	36.26	51.07	21.31	32.56	47.84	66.82	19.61
South Dakota	18.90	28.92	43.47	59.72	21.35	32.48	48.05	67.58	19.12
North Dakota	21.00	33.61	53.34	77.32	21.67	36.67	56.67	80.47	19.79
Montana	9.88	15.43	24.89	32.21	17.40	24.30	36.00	66.43	24.67
Wyoming	9.40	14.40	25.00	33.00	15.00	22.50	35.00	65.00	24.00
Colorado	11.60	18.10	27.63	37.20	16.90	27.85	44.69	65.33	23.06
New Mexico	5.70	10.00	14.92	20.33	8.60	15.08	26.33	37.17	20.00
Arizona	12.50	17.50	25.00	35.00	.....	.....	.....	.....	17.50
Utah	9.00	15.22	23.44	34.78	7.75	12.00	31.67	43.00	18.00
Nevada	8.50	13.00	20.63	32.50	15.00	21.25	33.75	55.00	29.30
Idaho	12.30	16.00	24.83	34.83	15.67	20.67	26.67	41.67	21.67
Washington	22.09	30.50	35.47	51.53	24.40	36.00	49.40	77.88	29.72
Oregon	12.91	18.41	27.02	42.29	20.85	31.50	42.75	60.00	21.35
California	15.56	23.17	35.99	54.50	22.00	33.36	50.81	71.81	25.83
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	18.00
Total	20.19	30.20	43.63	61.42	26.79	39.11	56.61	77.57	21.77

Estimated prices of animals on farms and ranches in January, 1894—Continued.

States and Territories.	Oxen and other cattle.				Sheep.		Swine.	
	Under 1 year old.	Between 1 and 2 years old.	Between 2 and 3 years old.	Over 3 years old.	Under 1 year old.	Over 1 year old.	Under 1 year old.	Over 1 year old.
ie	$8.00	$12.94	$22.06	$35.75	$1.77	$2.15	$6.96	$15.63
Hampshire	7.59	13.25	18.25	32.31	2.03	2.53	8.49	16.20
nont	6.88	12.00	19.00	27.00	2.00	2.22	7.80	12.85
sachusetts	9.20	14.10	22.60	40.20	3.50	3.70	9.50	17.17
le Island	7.60	12.60	19.80	25.60	3.20	3.80	9.50	18.40
ecticut	10.38	16.25	24.06	35.63	3.21	3.53	9.00	17.88
York	8.65	14.60	21.64	34.72	2.48	2.98	7.08	13.77
Jersey	12.92	19.58	26.75	37.58	3.90	4.15	8.60	15.00
sylvania	8.59	16.86	21.95	29.93	2.66	3.27	6.93	13.32
ware	8.00	12.00	18.00	20.00	3.00	3.25	3.50	5.00
yland	8.63	13.87	21.03	31.43	2.81	3.20	5.40	10.27
inia	6.01	9.77	15.36	21.79	2.18	2.70	3.29	7.03
h Carolina	4.05	7.11	11.48	15.75	1.15	1.63	2.83	5.97
h Carolina	5.21	8.15	11.68	16.89	1.27	1.71	3.84	8.25
gia	4.31	6.62	9.86	13.50	1.22	1.71	2.98	6.26
ida	4.19	6.00	8.34	11.80	1.23	1.97	1.63	3.72
ama	2.96	4.63	6.73	9.92	.99	1.33	2.43	4.90
issippi	3.02	4.89	7.40	11.06	1.10	1.55	2.43	5.50
isiana	4.06	5.81	9.63	12.54	1.00	1.75	2.33	5.87
as	4.52	7.60	9.70	13.16	1.02	1.47	2.87	6.43
ansas	2.83	4.48	6.73	10.34	1.03	1.50	2.13	4.82
nessee	4.40	7.76	12.33	16.72	1.46	1.98	3.72	7.58
t Virginia	6.68	12.35	19.20	26.74	1.66	2.35	3.74	8.01
tucky	6.48	10.96	17.47	25.17	1.93	2.65	3.64	8.06
	8.34	14.40	23.03	31.83	1.62	2.52	5.15	10.36
higan	7.57	13.37	21.60	31.03	1.81	2.51	5.77	11.12
ana	7.83	14.17	21.86	30.27	2.03	2.57	5.11	10.53
ois	7.66	13.17	20.37	28.22	1.89	2.61	5.57	10.71
consin	6.41	11.08	17.34	26.43	1.78	2.34	6.27	11.59
nesota	5.11	8.86	14.56	21.80	1.64	2.45	5.73	11.23
a	8.04	14.00	21.97	29.74	2.11	2.81	6.73	12.12
souri	6.98	11.17	17.08	23.42	1.47	2.13	3.74	7.48
sas	6.77	11.84	18.35	25.06	1.43	2.23	5.45	10.56
raska	6.99	11.90	18.77	24.58	1.63	2.65	6.44	11.80
h Dakota	6.05	10.88	16.88	24.21	1.70	2.47	5.72	11.65
h Dakota	6.46	11.28	17.93	25.19	1.27	2.33	4.40	11.70
tana	8.00	11.93	17.20	24.33	1.27	2.00	7.09	14.18
ming	6.60	11.20	16.60	21.90	1.50	2.45	5.00	11.40
rado	7.96	10.77	16.28	20.95	1.23	2.05	6.23	10.89
Mexico	4.33	6.83	11.20	14.20	.68	1.55	5.67	10.08
ona	4.00	7.00	11.00	15.00	1.13	1.63	4.50	9.50
	5.22	8.61	13.50	17.94	1.21	1.84	6.93	11.88
ada	6.81	9.05	14.60	19.20	1.38	2.45	5.97	12.91
o	6.17	10.17	15.08	19.17	1.33	1.83	4.67	9.67
hington	8.53	13.27	19.93	33.53	1.87	2.66	4.05	8.10
on	6.06	10.07	15.24	21.53	1.25	2.00	3.38	6.72
fornia	7.44	11.87	17.49	23.23	1.28	2.00	4.11	8.17
Total	6.16	10.56	16.05	21.55	1.49	2.20	4.70	8.85

Estimated number of animals on farms and ranches, total value of each kind and average price, January 1, 1894.

States and Territories.	Horses.			Mules.		
	Number.	Average price.	Value.	Number.	Average price.	Value.
Maine	116,604	$63.07	$7,354,453	.....	.....	.....
New Hampshire	56,741	57.58	3,267,245	.....	.....	.....
Vermont	94,825	54.54	5,171,851	.....	.....	.....
Massachusetts	65,760	73.03	4,802,581	.....	.....	.....
Rhode Island	10,443	95.43	996,565	.....	.....	.....
Connecticut	45,766	89.95	4,116,471	.....	.....	.....
New York	702,821	71.81	50,466,294	4,819	$78.09	$376,334
New Jersey	83,321	85.27	7,105,037	8,296	101.69	843,644
Pennsylvania	659,484	63.77	42,053,101	36,513	81.86	2,989,914
Delaware	29,386	50.53	1,484,924	5,550	86.55	480,343
Maryland	136,359	63.37	8,641,027	13,213	91.43	1,208,013
Virginia	251,145	56.04	14,074,839	39,122	69.92	2,756,486
North Carolina	134,517	72.20	9,712,005	109,762	77.64	8,521,935
South Carolina	62,635	81.92	5,130,853	95,994	95.93	9,208,744
Georgia	105,984	73.47	7,786,699	161,204	88.34	14,240,462
Florida	33,144	66.40	2,200,674	8,365	86.64	724,721
Alabama	119,806	57.31	6,866,130	125,936	67.14	8,455,682
Mississippi	164,250	52.69	8,654,912	150,860	67.01	10,109,586
Louisiana	130,804	46.24	6,047,731	92,805	38.83	7,316,191
Texas	1,183,895	27.20	32,203,376	253,839	34.62	11,251,535
Arkansas	196,545	45.58	8,958,806	130,882	82.46	8,457,762
Tennessee	334,408	56.34	18,839,662	198,171	8.92	11,675,375
West Virginia	163,312	46.46	7,586,792	7,601	55.39	421,036
Kentucky	430,941	56.24	24,237,842	150,225	54.94	8,253,336
Ohio	864,360	54.85	47,408,255	20,700	58.95	1,220,326
Michigan	503,779	60.22	30,335,949	3,026	78.50	237,526
Indiana	761,954	50.31	38,331,965	57,688	56.20	3,241,815
Illinois	1,308,771	43.40	56,799,303	104,720	51.26	5,367,573
Wisconsin	475,674	57.17	27,193,118	5,025	63.40	318,579
Minnesota	498,772	59.43	29,640,542	9,269	70.81	656,370
Iowa	1,367,329	43.73	59,792,200	36,187	53.56	1,938,145
Missouri	1,008,361	38.25	38,569,008	256,828	45.91	11,791,488
Kansas	950,564	40.42	38,421,979	97,019	53.41	5,182,039
Nebraska	708,457	41.08	29,106,808	46,939	56.94	2,672,932
South Dakota	290,862	45.82	13,328,256	7,380	60.67	447,712
North Dakota	163,499	57.72	9,436,849	7,840	71.85	563,274
Montana	190,519	26.00	5,108,703	994	45.49	45,217
Wyoming	82,524	24.09	1,988,009	1,505	57.06	85,870
Colorado	194,731	30.27	5,894,768	9,163	61.07	559,563
New Mexico	92,963	15.80	1,468,507	3,747	31.37	117,530
Arizona	52,697	21.75	1,146,160	1,327	50.75	40,805
Utah	69,112	21.94	1,516,265	1,789	31.37	56,123
Nevada	55,793	23.60	1,316,764	1,604	39.25	62,965
Idaho	144,688	48.00	6,945,024	990	45.75	45,293
Washington	198,076	40.59	8,040,067	1,392	69.18	96,285
Oregon	235,607	29.49	6,947,718	6,182	44.98	278,064
California	513,636	41.98	21,562,949	63,033	56.38	3,553,880
Oklahoma	29,515	39.50	1,165,843	5,427	48.50	263,210
Total	16,081,139	47.83	769,224,799	2,352,231	62.17	146,232,811

ıated number of animals on farms and ranches, total value of each kind and average price, January 1, 1894—Continued.

tes and Territories.	Milch cows.			Oxen and other cattle.		
	Number.	Average price.	Value.	Number.	Average price.	Value.
.....	177,602	$21.37	$3,795,355	130,528	$24.37	$3,181,617
Hampshire.....	112,585	21.81	2,455,479	92,898	22.69	2,107,888
ont	246,022	25.25	6,212,056	152,686	19.67	3,003,164
chusetts	178,135	32.50	5,789,388	86,422	26.71	2,308,502
Island.....	24,765	26.60	658,749	11,713	21.13	247,451
cticut	137,582	28.94	3,981,623	76,886	27.65	2,125,980
York.....	1,572,443	25.78	40,537,581	706,597	26.16	18,484,989
ersey	190,734	35.20	6,713,837	52,641	29.11	1,532,272
ylvania	938,382	25.55	23,975,660	737,919	21.64	15,965,972
are.....	33,836	24.50	828,982	26,544	17.44	462,924
and	147,526	23.63	3,486,039	112,644	21.79	2,454,883
ia.....	276,617	18.08	5,001,235	411,006	15.10	6,206,936
Carolina	274,794	14.99	4,119,162	386,463	11.15	4,308,446
Carolina	125,619	20.47	2,571,421	161,668	12.10	1,955,390
ia	312,742	16.44	5,141,478	557,645	9.59	5,350,268
a	114,332	13.68	1,564,062	375,981	8.28	3,111,393
ma	311,743	12.45	3,881,200	545,134	6.85	3,735,805
sippi	302,959	12.91	3,911,201	555,588	7.68	4,268,363
iana	175,784	16.50	2,900,436	391,131	9.06	3,544,504
.....	808,515	13.84	11,189,848	6,591,787	9.50	62,604,840
ssas.....	328,697	10.76	3,536,780	654,376	7.02	4,593,263
ssee	351,499	16.45	5,782,159	575,206	10.44	6,006,704
Virginia.....	182,265	19.15	3,490,375	354,376	15.20	5,387,721
cky	329,552	20.39	6,719,565	599,004	15.72	9,417,597
.....	767,735	25.94	19,915,046	803,236	20.89	16,780,881
gan.....	468,711	28.27	13,250,460	472,397	20.10	9,494,054
ıa	656,982	24.16	15,872,685	904,001	20.11	18,178,747
s	1,039,121	25.12	26,102,720	1,553,383	18.66	28,984,266
nsin.....	787,390	24.34	19,165,073	779,224	17.52	13,651,693
sota.....	577,196	19.42	11,209,146	778,038	13.74	10,687,365
.....	1,278,231	23.57	30,127,905	2,731,385	19.79	54,064,497
uri	784,841	17.67	13,868,140	1,850,175	15.20	28,120,259
s	668,914	18.15	12,140,789	1,978,322	16.54	32,713,134
ska.....	535,536	19.61	10,501,861	1,613,223	16.70	26,941,631
Dakota	290,550	19.12	5,555,316	467,400	16.10	7,523,317
Dakota	140,700	19.79	2,784,453	250,566	16.84	4,219,914
ma	36,419	24.67	898,457	1,056,952	15.73	16,627,979
ing	17,815	24.60	438,249	852,437	13.99	11,923,042
do.....	76,124	23.06	1,755,419	996,301	15.53	15,468,276
Mexico.....	18,400	20.00	368,000	1,224,546	9.44	11,556,533
ıa	14,878	17.50	260,365	649,502	11.25	7,306,898
.....	56,143	18.00	1,010,574	351,584	11.59	4,075,882
a.....	18,196	29.30	533,143	259,078	12.97	3,360,732
.....	30,419	21.67	659,180	429,947	12.50	5,374,338
ington	108,535	28.72	3,117,125	408,293	20.79	8,487,108
ı	110,398	21.35	2,356,997	804,543	14.97	12,041,277
rnia	329,161	25.82	8,498,937	925,578	16.17	14,962,157
oma	20,275	18.00	364,950	121,219	15.50	1,878,895
Total	16,487,400	21.77	358,998,661	36,608,168	14.66	536,789,747

IV. ESTIMATED NUMBER OF ANIMALS ON FARMS AND RANCHES, TOTAL VALUE OF EACH KIND, AND AVERAGE PRICE, JANUARY, 1894.

States and Territories.	Sheep.			Hogs.		
	Number.	Average price.	Value.	Number.	Average price.	Value.
Maine	326,937	$2.05	$671,855	79,995	$8.69	$695,476
New Hampshire	115,471	2.38	274,821	51,658	10.42	538,151
Vermont	280,170	1.16	604,719	76,268	9.11	695,622
Massachusetts	51,441	3.65	187,760	63,895	11.34	724,622
Rhode Island	11,279	3.65	41,168	13,481	11.28	152,664
Connecticut	39,930	3.46	138,014	53,786	10.78	579,596
New York	1,388,051	2.85	3,962,885	658,605	9.02	5,940,699
New Jersey	57,571	5.08	235,177	182,830	10.84	1,981,899
Pennsylvania	1,473,494	3.07	4,530,700	1,033,517	8.78	9,077,483
Delaware	12,873	3.18	40,968	52,167	3.80	198,224
Maryland	145,446	3.08	447,843	328,732	7.10	2,335,475
Virginia	418,432	2.55	1,247,651	920,228	4.41	5,060,044
North Carolina	376,309	1.49	559,195	1,334,966	3.99	5,328,916
South Carolina	78,384	1.58	123,690	767,521	5.43	4,165,799
Georgia	411,169	1.57	646,687	1,791,567	4.16	7,454,353
Florida	112,885	1.79	202,335	388,074	2.38	924,548
Alabama	343,832	1.22	421,057	1,514,249	3.29	4,988,083
Mississippi	415,855	1.42	588,435	1,577,208	3.47	5,478,907
Louisiana	184,273	1.52	279,634	806,168	3.75	3,019,904
Texas	3,814,405	1.33	5,075,065	2,555,459	4.29	10,973,142
Arkansas	228,310	1.34	307,054	1,547,689	3.21	4,961,892
Tennessee	519,770	1.81	939,952	1,930,049	4.80	9,265,790
West Virginia	765,705	2.12	1,619,772	407,344	4.85	1,975,698
Kentucky	1,163,098	2.41	2,797,483	1,794,849	4.79	8,595,892
Ohio	3,765,704	2.26	8,506,725	2,350,838	6.40	15,046,203
Michigan	2,392,617	2.29	5,469,523	720,766	7.16	5,161,465
Indiana	972,345	2.39	2,325,654	1,815,638	6.63	12,033,324
Illinois	1,032,976	2.37	2,450,632	3,422,454	7.01	23,988,664
Wisconsin	1,066,376	2.16	2,304,225	930,228	7.87	7,317,171
Minnesota	514,939	2.19	1,128,129	566,967	7.38	4,184,216
Iowa	775,222	2.59	2,004,724	5,996,179	8.24	49,403,718
Missouri	1,000,953	1.91	1,914,023	3,709,517	4.86	18,035,871
Kansas	323,392	1.97	635,789	2,249,714	6.83	15,364,873
Nebraska	277,952	2.31	643,014	2,088,964	8.05	16,811,981
South Dakota	336,960	2.25	759,642	241,643	7.50	1,812,961
North Dakota	370,880	2.03	754,073	99,275	6.59	654,226
Montana	2,780,908	1.76	4,891,895	39,388	9.22	363,026
Wyoming	1,198,567	2.17	2,606,284	15,834	6.73	106,530
Colorado	1,293,058	1.85	2,396,295	26,021	7.39	192,424
New Mexico	2,921,188	1.26	3,689,169	27,521	7.43	204,580
Arizona	691,246	1.75	1,209,681	19,536	7.25	141,636
Utah	1,905,819	1.63	3,098,480	51,850	8.46	438,887
Nevada	544,077	2.14	1,164,162	11,590	8.75	101,306
Idaho	779,547	2.25	1,753,981	58,725	8.15	478,669
Washington	832,063	2.39	1,989,796	162,977	5.51	897,678
Oregon	2,529,759	1.75	4,433,403	210,747	4.65	979,865
California	3,918,157	1.81	7,074,625	435,663	5.57	2,427,342
Oklahoma	18,222	2.10	38,266	24,153	5.25	126,830
Total	45,048,017	1.98	*89,186,110	45,206,498	5.98	270,384,636

* The value of sheep February 10, 1893, was $125,909,264. See U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, p. 60, William Lawrence, Bellefontaine Ohio.

All of the foregoing are from the Department of Agriculture. The Wool Book for 1892, by S. N. D. North, gives in tabular form the number of sheep in each State and Territory for the census years 1840, 1890, and for 1891. (See page 16.)

. NUMBER OF SHEEP IN EACH STATE AND TERRITORY ACCORDING TO THE CENSUS OF 1890.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, CENSUS OFFICE,
Washington, November 2, 1893.

DEAR SIR: I am in receipt of a letter * * * asking that you be furnished the lowing data:

First. The number and value of sheep owned in each State and Territory in the iited States.

Second. The number and value of sheep owned upon ranches in each State and rritory.

Third. The number of flockmasters in each State and Territory.

The information you desire has not been published as yet, but a manuscript copy s been made, which you will find herewith, showing the number of sheep on rms and ranges, by States, June 1, 1890. The ranges in Idaho, Oregon, and Washgton are included in the sheep on farms. The returns made to the census do not ow the value of sheep, or the number of "flockmasters."

I am, respectfully,

CARROLL D. WRIGHT,
Commissioner of Labor in Charge.

HON. WM. LAWRENCE,
Bellefontaine, Ohio.

Number of sheep on farms and ranges, by States, June 1, 1890.

States.	Total number of sheep on farms June 1, 1890.	Total number of sheep on ranges.	States.	Total number of sheep on farms, June 1, 1890.	Total number of sheep on ranges.
abama	386, 380	.....	Nevada	273, 469	.....
izona	102, 427	412, 709	New Hampshire	131, 611	.....
kansas	243, 999	.....	New Jersey	55, 409	.....
lifornia	2, 475, 140	897, 896	New Mexico	1, 248, 970	1, 225, 524
lorado	717, 990	178, 820	New York	1, 528, 979	.....
nnecticut	37, 652	.....	North Carolina	402, 247	.....
laware	12, 265	.....	North Dakota	136, 413	.....
strict of Columbia	14	.....	Ohio	4, 060, 729	.....
orida	98, 275	.....	Oklahoma	16, 565	.....
orgia	440, 459	.....	Oregon	1, 780, 312	.....
aho	357, 712	.....	Pennsylvania	1, 612, 107	.....
inois	922, 631	.....	Rhode Island	11, 400	.....
diana	1, 081, 133	.....	South Carolina	79, 421	.....
wa	547, 394	.....	South Dakota	238, 448	70
ansas	401, 192	.....	Tennessee	540, 996	.....
entucky	937, 124	.....	Texas	3, 454, 858	809, 329
uisiana	186, 167	.....	Utah	1, 014, 176	922, 730
aine	370, 484	.....	Vermont	333, 947	.....
aryland	132, 329	.....	Virginia	495, 313	.....
assachusetts	51, 438	.....	Washington	265, 267	.....
ichigan	2, 400, 318	.....	West Virginia	785, 063	.....
innesota	399, 049	.....	Wisconsin	984, 972	.....
ississippi	451, 779	.....	Wyoming	712, 520	.....
issouri	950, 562	.....			
ontana	1, 859, 016	493, 870	Total	35, 935, 364	4, 940, 948
ebraska	209, 243	.....			

VI. The Number of Flockmasters in the United State

On the 12th February, 1886, Hon. Columbus Delano, Hon. George Converse, Hon. J. D. Taylor, David Harpster, and W. N. Cowden, of Ohio, addressed a communication to the Secretary of the Treas on the subject of the wool tariff, in which it is said the number of fl masters in the United States, estimated as in the census of 1880, therein 1,020,728.

Statement showing for the United States the number of flocks of sheep (and flock ow exclusive of those on public land ranches, taken from the census of 1880.

Alabama	23,879	Montana	
Arizona	35	Nebraska	1
Arkansas	20,595	Nevada	
California	4,326	New Hampshire	1
Colorado	406	New Jersey	1
Connecticut	3,194	New Mexico	
Dakota	1,819	New York	7
Delaware	1,986	North Carolina	5
Florida	1,001	Ohio	9
Georgia	25,514	Oregon	
Idaho	128	Pennsylvania	7
Illinois	39,803	Rhode Island	
Indiana	54,069	South Carolina	1
Iowa	17,220	Tennessee	6
Kansas	3,804	Texas	
Kentucky	60,598	Utah	
Louisiana	5,449	Vermont	1
Maine	34,132	Virginia	1
Maryland	10,498	Washington	
Massachusetts	3,488	West Virginia	1
Michigan	62,119	Wisconsin	8
Minnesota	24,208	Wyoming	
Mississippi	15,466		
Missouri	63,990	Total	1,0

ʼUMBER AND VALUE OF SHEEP IN THE UNITED STATES, 1810–1892.

Number, average price, and value of sheep on farms in the United States.

ı Wool Book of 1892, by S. N. D. North, secretary of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers.]

m the annual reports of the Commissioner of Agriculture.				Pounds of wool grown.	
				Department of Agriculture.	1867 to 1885 estimated by James Lynch, New York; 1886 to 1891, by J. P. Truitt, Philadelphia.
Date of report.	Number.	Average price.	Value.	Pounds.	Pounds.
.....	10,000,000	.....	.....	13,000,000	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....	14,100,000	.....
.....	.....	.....	.....	17,829,000	.....
.....	19,311,000	.....	.....	35,802,114	.....
.....	21,723,000	.....	.....	52,516,969	.....
.....	22,471,275	.....	.....	60,264,913	.....
.....	39,385,386	$3.37	$132,774,660	160,000,000	160,000,000
.....	38,991,912	2.52	98,407,809	168,000,000	177,000,000
.....	37,724,279	2.17	82,139,979	180,000,000	162,250,000
.....	40,853,000	2.28	93,364,433	162,000,000	163,000,000
.....	31,851,000	2.32	74,035,837	160,000,000	146,000,000
.....	31,679,300	2.80	88,771,197	150,000,000	160,000,000
.....	33,002,400	2.96	97,922,350	158,000,000	174,700,000
.....	33,938,200	2.61	88,690,569	170,000,000	178,000,000
.....	33,783,600	2.79	94,320,652	181,000,000	193,000,000
.....	35,935,300	2.60	93,666,318	192,000,000	198,250,000
.....	35,804,200	2.27	80,892,683	200,000,000	208,250,000
.....	35,740,500	2.25	80,603,062	208,250,000	211,000,000
.....	38,123,800	2.07	79,023,984	211,000,000	232,500,000
.....	40,765,900	2.21	90,230,587	232,500,000	264,000,000
.....	43,576,899	2.39	104,070,759	240,000,000	290,000,000
.....	45,016,224	2.37	106,596,954	272,000,000	300,000,000
.....	49,237,291	2.53	124,365,835	290,000,000	320,400,000
.....	50,626,626	2.37	119,902,706	300,000,000	337,500,000
.....	50,360,243	2.14	107,960,650	308,000,000	329,600,000
.....	48,322,331	1.91	92,443,867	302,000,000	323,031,026
.....	44,759,314	2.01	89,872,839	285,000,000	302,169,950
.....	43,544,755	2.05	89,279,926	269,000,000	301,876,121
.....	42,599,079	2.13	90,640,369	265,000,000	295,779,479
.....	44,336,072	2.27	100,659,761	276,000,000	309,474,856
.....	43,431,136	2.51	108,397,447	285,000,000	307,101,507
.....	44,938,365	2.58	116,121,270	333,018,405	.....
.....	47,273,553	2.66	125,909,264	364,156,666	.....
.....	45,048,017	1.98	89,186,110	.....	.....

figures previous to 1867 are from the United States Census Reports.
U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, 53d Congress, 2d session, chart, p. 54: Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, gress, 2d session, p. 81.

d as to wool production, see *post* under Division B, Section II. It eafter shown that the foregoing figures *prior to 1871* are taken from *timates* of the Department of Agriculture and are *not* reliable. even since then they differ somewhat from the statements from the u of Statistics in the Treasury Department. See Report on "Wool nanufactures of wool," by Wm. F. Switzler, chief of the Bureau, and again 1880, pp. XLII, 162, 164.

VIII. PROTECTION PROTECTS.*

The foregoing table of statistics is not accurate prior to 1871. And it has been said that in 1867, when the protective wool tariff took effect, there were in the United States 39,385,386 sheep, and in 1879 only 38,123,800, and that it was not until 1880 when the number reached 40,765,000, and that hence *protection does not protect.*

This is readily explained.

1. These figures are not the *official census* statistics, but inaccurate returns or estimates. According to the *census statistics* the sheep were as follows:

	Number of sheep.
1840	19,311,374
1850	21,723,220
1860	22,471,275
1870	28,477,951
1880	35,192,074

It is not possible that the figures quoted against the operation of the wool tariff of 1867 can be correct.

The following letter explains itself:

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE, DIVISION OF STATISTICS,
Washington, D. C., July 20, 1892.

SIR: Your note calling attention to the estimated number of sheep in 1867, presented in the report of this Department for that year is received. The crop reporting machinery of this office was not fully organized until after 1870, and the estimates presented prior to that date were based upon limited data. In the case of sheep the national census of 1870 showed that the Department estimates had been too high.

The war and resulting demand for woolen manufactures greatly stimulated sheep raising, and there was a large increase in flocks between 1860 and 1867, but it is apparent that the estimates referred to made too great an increase. In all compilations made by this office the estimates prior to 1871 are not used.

In connection I quote from a letter written by Mr. Dodge, statistician of this Department, on May 19, 1892, to Mr. S. N. D. North, secretary of the Wool Manufacturers' Association, relative to a table purporting to give estimates of this Department.

"It is not fair to go back of 1871, the earliest date for authentic statements of sheep and wool. Before that was a period of abnormal increase, followed by sudden slaughter, when the machinery of statistical investigation was only partially in operation, and results uncertain.

Respectfully,

B. W. SNOW,
Acting Statistician.

Hon. WM. LAWRENCE, *Bellefontaine, Ohio.*

And see U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session, chart, p. 54.

2. Switzler's [Democratic] Wool Report of 1887, p. LX, proves all these five points. It says:

[1-2] Confident of the passage of the [wool] tariff introduced in 1866, and which had been passed by the House of Representatives, the farmers of the country increased their flocks, especially beyond the Mississippi, and the growth of wool rapidly increased, in the expectation of a great rise in prices consequent upon the high rates of duty imposed. * * * [3] The long delay between the inception of the bill and its final passage [in the act of March 2, 1867] resulted in large importations under the old [low] tariff; consequently, when the tariff actually went into operation the market was overstocked. [4] In addition to this, large quantities of army clothing accumulated during the war were thrown upon the market at exceedingly low prices [by auction sales under the authority of the War Department], and added to the dullness of the demand for wool from the manufacturers.

* See U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, Ch. x, p. 281.

[5] As to increase of sheep in foreign countries, see Consular Reports, No. 108, September, 1889, pp. 13, 165; No. 117, June, 1890, p. 242; No. 121, October, 1890, p. 253; No. 127, April, 1891, pp. 499, 567; No. 128, May, 1891, pp. 97, 104; North's Wool Book, 1892, pp. 80, 84; American Economist, January, 1892, p. 5; Switzler's Wool Rep., 1887, p. 226; Bulletin National Association Wool Manufacturers, 1888, No. 1, p. 98; Bulletin, No. 1, 1888, pp. 64, 66.

3. *Other causes reduce flocks.*—William Lloyd Garrison's ornate free-wool pamphlet of December 15, 1889, referring to wool tariff, in this connection candidly says:

Other and more potent factors interfered to lessen flocks.

He might have added that just before the tariff of 1867 went into operation the country was flooded with foreign wool, and the Quartermaster-General threw upon the market as a legacy of war supplies 2,218,917 great coats, 267,500 uniform coats, 539,253 sack coats, 358,887 trousers, 802,419 blankets, 404,006 shirts, and an immense amount of other clothing and cloths. These figures are *official.*

The monthly report, Statistician Department Agriculture, May, 1892, says:

The numbers of sheep increased abnormally during the war period. In 1866 correspondents were appointed throughout the South, but the service was incomplete and crude in all sections, slowly improving and becoming comparatively effective by 1870. The large flocks of the period were cut down ruthlessly in 1868 and 1869 from the low prices throughout the world, the result of plethora and glut both in wool and woolens in all markets. The reduction in three or four years was doubtless 15 to 20 per cent, but the annual estimates can not be made with reliably close approximation. The tariff of 1867 stayed the advanced tide and ameliorated the situation, but could not prevent the slaughter of a portion of the flocks, which is a result that always follows unsatisfactory prices.

And the foregoing answers also the statements that sheep declined in number from 1867 to 1886 in Ohio, California, and other States. Robert Blenkie in Tariff Hearings, Committee Ways and Means, first session, Fifty-first Congress, p. 315.

4. Sheep were for a time reduced in numbers in Ohio because they were shipped to new States and Territories to supply a demand created by the tariff. And the test of protection is its permanent effect on the wool industry as a whole.

The monthly report, Department of Agriculture, May, 1892, p. 175, says:

From nearly 32,000,000 sheep in 1871 there was a gradual increase to over 50,000,000 in thirteen years, or 59 per cent. Then a slight change in the tariff occurred, followed by revenue decisions liberal in certain directions, and also coincident with reduction of wool values in foreign markets, precipitating the inevitable effect of discouragement, and reducing numbers over 7,000,000 in four years, or 16 per cent. Since 1888 numbers of sheep have increased and prices have advanced, with slight increase in wool values, subject to temporary fluctuation. The average farm values of sheep in these periods of decline and of tendency to recuperation are thus presented:

Year.	Value.	Year.	Value.
1885	$2.14	1889	$2.13
1886	1.91	1890	2.27
1887	2.01	1891	2.50
1888	2.05	1892	2.58

The fall in the price of foreign wool occurred in 1882, when the British average of imports declined from 27.9 cents in 1881 to 24.8 cents, but at the beginning of 1883 the average of our flocks was $2.53, a little higher than the year before, the decline manifesting itself in January, 1884, when the average fell to $2.37, continuing to drop annually to 1886, and showing no considerable rise until 1890.

5. There is Democratic evidence that *protection protects*. Thus Mr. Springer, the author of the free-wool bill in the Fifty-second Congress, in his Report No. 501, of March 1, 1892, from the Committee on Ways and Means, gave evidence as follows:

Thus the report says:

The result [of the act of 1890] has been, instead of an increase in price, a fall from 2 to 3 cents a pound, as compared with the prices which prevailed prior to its passage. The price of wool is one-half what it was at the time of the passage of the act of March 2, 1867. * * * In view of these facts it can not be said that the high tariffs on wool have benefited the woolgrowers. * * * After twenty-five years of experiment the result has been a reduction in the price of wools."

The report refers to the increase of sheep in foreign countries and to the reduction of our tariff on wool by the act of March 3, 1883, and says:

This increased production, following a reduction of the tariff on wool, had the effect to depress prices; but this depression is further explained by general decline in the price of wool throughout the world. The act of October 1, 1890, increased the duty on wool on an average of 1 cent a pound, with a view to increasing the prices of wool in this country.

Springer's free-wool report says wool prices were *reduced under protection*, but he admits the tariff did not, but other causes did, produce the decline in prices. (*See* Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, pp. 291, 296.)

6. But if Mr. North's figures were correct—*as they are not*—they prove that protection protects.

All the authorities agree that the wool product in 1867 was 160,000,000 pounds. If sheep did not, until 1880, exceed the number of 1867, yet the average annual wool product for the twelve years, 1868 to 1879, inclusive, was, according to the Department of Agriculture, 178,333,334 pounds, and according to other authorities, 183,562,500, or 23,562,500 more pounds of wool than in 1867.

And the increase in number of sheep from 1870 to 1880 was 15,998,948, being 53 per cent, and in 1884 the number reached 50,626,626, with a wool product according to Lynch of 337,500,000 pounds.

7. But there is another explanation, based on different causes: (1) The number of sheep was largely increased by the demand for wool during the war, from 1861 to 1865. (2) The number was further increased from 1865 to 1868, in anticipation of the passage of a highly protective wool tariff bill, introduced in Congress in 1866, thus making the number abnormal, in view of then existing conditions. (3) Then this increase in sheep and wool product was met with excessive imports of foreign wool, in anticipation of the new tariff. (4) The great accumulations of woolen goods during and at the close of the war; and, (5) the increase of sheep in foreign countries, and as a consequence, the regular decline in wool prices all over the world.

8. FALL IN FOREIGN PRICES.

Free traders have been fond of drawing comparisons between the lower price of American wool under the McKinley law and the prices current previous to 1860. It is true that previous to 1860 the cleaned scoured value of Ohio XX was 80 cents, and its cleaned scoured value under the McKinley law before it was menaced with repeal in the early part of 1893 was 70 cents, a decline of 12½ per cent. This fact has been given great prominence; but the advocates of this view have been ominously silent as to the 46 per cent decline in London in wool of the

same kind and quality during the same period. For some years previous to 1860 the London value of Australian clean scoured wool similar to XX Ohio was 65 cents, but in 1893 its value was only 35 cents, a decline in the free-trade markets of the world of over 46 per cent, as against a decline under protection in the United States for wool of the same quality and condition of only 12½ per cent. Further evidence of this fact, but exhibiting a still greater decline in foreign markets, is shown in the publication of a table by Messrs. Geo. Wm. Bond & Co., of Boston, giving all kinds of colonial wools imported into England and America in 1860 and in 1893, showing a falling off in value in that period of over 51 per cent.

IX. The Want of Protection will destroy American Sheep Husbandry.

This is a logical sequence of the doctrine that protection protects.

1. *And it is proved by the fact that foreign wools can be laid down in Boston at prices so low as to destroy American competition.* The Ohio Farmer of March 8, 1894, says:

We recently received the following inquiry from a subscriber at Licking Valley, this State:

"What is the price, to the importer, in London, in our money, of X and XX and one-fourth blood wools that come into competition with Ohio wools?"

We sent this inquiry to Coates Bros., reliable wool merchants of Philadelphia, and they reply as follows, under date of February 26, 1894:

"In reply to your inquiry we beg to state that we are advised that the London price to-day of Australian scoured wool, similar to Ohio X and XX in grade, is about 37 cents, and South American scoured wool of same grade about 35 cents. Scoured one-fourth blood in London is 28 to 30 cents. It will cost about 2 cents per scoured pound to pay expenses of buying and transporting to this country. Best Ohio well-washed X and XX wools will shrink 50 to 52 per cent in scouring, so that your fine Ohio wools, when well washed, would have to be sold here at 17 to 20 cents (the latter for delaine) to equal, when scoured, the present London price of similar wool, and Ohio washed one-fourth blood fleece, to equal the present London price, would be worth about 23 to 24 cents. From these figures you will note that the lower grades, such as one-fourth blood, are already about down to a free-trade basis, but fine wools must decline still further to meet London values if the duty is removed. With free wool we may expect washed Ohio fine wools to sell for about 15 cents per pound in Ohio, and washed low wools at about 20 cents."

2. It may be said we can raise sheep of the *mutton breeds*. If this were true, they can not supply the needed wools either in *variety* or *amount*.

a. Free wool has ruined sheep, husbandry in England except as to a limited amount of the *best mutton* sheep, commanding prices which can not be realized in the United States.

Recent statistics of the sheep of the United Kingdom show two-fifths of them under one year old. (*See* U. S. Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, Chap. x, pp. 243, 257.)

b. And with free mutton and free sheep ruin will come to the American mutton industry.

South America will supply mutton, in refrigerator ships, to New Orleans, Charleston, Baltimore, and other seacoast cities.

The Argentine Republic has already provided bounties to her flock-owners in exporting mutton and beef, in refrigerator ships, to supply cities on both sides of the Atlantic. See Consul Baker's report to State Department December 13, 1888. Rep. No. 102, February, 1889, p. 251.

Canada, with her *cheaper labor* than in the United States, and with her cheap pasturage and her *proximity* and *cheap freights*, will furnish mutton to New York, Philadelphia, Buffalo, and other cities at prices

with which sheep-farmers, especially west of the Mississippi River, can not compete.

c. It has been shown that Australasia will soon supply England and other portions of Europe with mutton, and thus drive American meats from their markets. (*See* U. S. Senate Mis. Doc., No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, 160, 263, 291.)

B. PART SECOND.—THE WORLD'S PRODUCTION OF WOOLS.

I.—PRODUCTION 1800 TO 1850.

The production of wool throughout the world for the first fifty years of the present century was 32,360,881,950 pounds, and the yearly average for the first fifty years 647,217,639 pounds.

The following shows the world's production of wool, in pounds, from 1801 to 1890, inclusive, together with the increase in population, Boston prices, and the decrease or increase in sheep in different sections of the United States:

[The American Wool Reporter, December 3, 1890.]

Years.	Population.*	Years.	Production.	Yearly average.
			Pounds.	*Pounds.*
1810	269, 400, 000	1801-'10	5, 109, 663, 200	510, 966, 320
1820	298, 900, 000	1811-'20	5, 427, 612, 600	542, 761, 260
1830	337, 450, 000	1821-'30	5, 753, 904, 200	575, 390, 420
1840	384, 060, 000	1831-'40	6, 867, 524, 000	686, 752, 400
1850	435, 223, 740	1841-'50	9, 102, 177, 950	910, 217, 795
1860	480, 800, 450	1851-'60	11, 035, 584, 400	1, 103, 548, 540
1870	537, 183, 250	1861-'70	14, 883, 648, 300	1, 488, 364, 830
1880	641, 858, 085	1871-'80	17, 080, 363, 490	1, 708, 036, 349
1890	729, 591, 430	1881-'90	19, 462, 037, 826	1, 946, 203, 783
Total			94, 722, 416, 960	1, 052, 371, 296

* The population in this table includes eighteen nations of Europe. In America: The United States, Mexico, the Argentine Republic, and the Dominion of Canada. In Africa: The Cape Colonies. In Australia: The whole continent. In Asia: India and Turkey.

II. PRODUCTION OF WOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES AND THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC FROM 1800 TO 1890, FOR YEARS STATED.

Year.	Amounts as shown by U. S. Census.	United States.	Argentine Republic.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
1800		7, 925, 840	1, 200, 000
1810		11, 227, 520	2, 800, 000
1820		14, 100, 500	3, 750, 000
1830		17, 829, 870	5, 940, 000
1840	35, 802, 114	51, 925, 640	14, 965, 250
1850	52, 516, 959	89, 985, 400	24, 864, 300
1860	60, 264, 913	111, 976, 950	55, 885, 700
1870	100, 102, 387	154, 500, 680	166, 987, 500
1880	240, 681, 751	240, 680, 750	259, 824, 840
1890		271, 342, 200	295, 425, 200

III. Production of Wools in Europe and Africa from 1800 to 1890, by Decades.

Year.	Europe.	Africa.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*
1800	419,985,200	No returns.
1810	439,945,600	No returns.
1820	456,078,340	No returns.
1830	475,988,700	2,200,000
1840	510,895,860	9,950,600
1850	629,642,100	17,825,850
1860	715,865,380	27,945,240
1870	606,940,870	45,968,880
1880	675,495,630	51,928,650
1890	701,658,350	55,185,780

IV. Production of Wools in Australasia and Asia from 1800 to 1890, for Years Stated.

Year.	Australia.	Asia.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*
1800	No returns.	52,498,150
1810	No returns.	56,993,200
1820	No returns.	68,837,420
1830	2,860,650	70,571,200
1840	13,860,780	85,149,270
1850	42,958,645	104,941,500
1860	69,964,320	121,910,890
1870	179,459,780	134,507,120
1880	345,010,338	135,095,140
1890	400,879,240	264,860,050

V. World's Wool Production in 1887 and 1891.

[From statement complied by S. N. D. North, secretary National Association of Wool Manufacturers. Wool Book, 1892, p. 93.]

Countries of production.	1887.	1891.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*
Europe:		
Russia	262,966,000	291,500,000
Great Britain and Ireland	135,936,000	147,475,000
France	80,138,000	124,803,000
Spain	66,138,000	*a* 66,138,000
Germany	54,894,000	*a* 54,894,000
Hungary	43,146,000	*a* 43,146,000
Italy	21,385,000	*a* 21,385,000
Austria	11,155,000	*a* 11,155,000
Portugal	10,362,000	*a* 10,362,000
Belgium	4,409,000	*a* 4,409,000
Sweden	3,307,000	*a* 3,307,000
All other Europe	8,818,000	*a* 8,818,000
Total, Europe	702,654,000	*b* 762,589,000
North America:		
United States	307,588,000	307,100,000
British North American provinces	4,409,000	12,000,000
South America:		
Argentine Republic (exports, 1885)	283,047,000	376,700,000
Brazil	.....	1,875,000
Peru	.....	6,700,000
Uruguay (exports, 1894)	59,084,000	42,000,000
Australasia	455,470,000	550,000,000

Corrections on North's book:

a Correct copy, but Mr. North has evidently carried forward from 1887. Should be more than given by 24,803,000 pounds.

b Correct copy, but should be 787,392,000 and so required to make grand total.

World's wool production in 1887 and 1891—Continued.

Countries of production.	1887.	1891.
Asia:	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
British East Indies (exports, 1885-'86)	23, 126, 000	72, 000, 000
Russia		66, 000, 000
Turkey, Asiatic, and Persia (estimated)	13, 228, 000	
Afghanistan, Beluchistan, L		
Thibet exports to India		12, 200, 000
Sivas } Asiatic Turkey		8, 300, 000
Syria }		
Mesopotamia		31, 555, 000
Persia (exports to India		3, 470, 000
Africa:		
Cape Colony (exports, 1885)	29, 299, 000	128, 681, 000
Natal (exports, 1885)	17, 306, 000	
Egypt		2, 800, 000
All other countries	88, 185, 000	48, 000, 000
Total production	1, 983, 396, 000	2, 456, 773, 000

The figures for 1887 are as found in the Treasury Department Wool Report for 1888, pp. 225, 226.

The United States has about 71 sheep to each 100 of population; Australasia has over 3,000 to 100 people. The latest returns show very little difference in the shearing capacity of animals in the two countries.

VI. World's Production of Wools from 1881 to 1890, inclusive.

Year.	Quantity.	Boston prices per pound for Ohio wool.		
		Fine.	Medium.	Coarse.
	Pounds.	*Cents.*	*Cents.*	*Cents.*
1881	1, 787, 427, 085	45	46	38·1
1882	1, 876, 729, 927	42·3	45. 1	35
1883	2, 046, 840, 236	42·3	44·3	35
1884	2, 122, 300, 339	37	34·1	30·2
1885	1, 948, 219, 696	34	32·2	28·2
1886	1, 940, 682, 050	34	35	32·2
1887	1, 929, 904, 640	34. 2	36	31·2
1888	1, 905, 484, 560	32·1	36	21·2
1889	1, 914, 978, 467	34·2	32	36·3
1890	1. 989, 450, 820	34·3	32	37·2
Total	19, 462, 037, 820			

Yearly average production for the 10 years, 1881-1890, 1,946,203,782.

Yearly average price for 10 years, 1881-1890.

[Boston American Wool and Cotton Reporter, December 3, 1890.]

	Cents per pound.
Fine Ohio	36·94
Medium Ohio	36·98
Coarse Ohio	33·37

This explains why wools declined in price. See Consul Griffin's report on Australian wool trade, Consular Rep. 117, June, 1890, p. 242; No. 121, Oct., 1890, p. 253; No. 128, May, 1891, p. 109; and No. 97, Sept., 1888, p. 385.

VII. Australasian Wool Product and Value, 1872–1887.

a. Volume XXI, September, 1891, Bulletin National Association Wool Manufacturers, 251, gives a table of wool production in Australia, which shows "that while the total product of Australasia's wool had nearly doubled since 1872 the total price realized from this increased product was but little more than the value in 1872." The table shows Australasian wool product and value as follows:

Year.	Bales.	Average value per bale.	Total values.
1872	743,000	$128.95	$95,821,385.00
1877	1,021,000	91.24	93,164,276.00
1885	1,282,000	68.13	87,153,942.00
1887	1,444,000	68.13	98,381,164.00

b.—*Australasia and Asia, 1800–1890.*

Year.	Australasia.	Asia.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*
1800	No returns.	52,498,150
1810	No returns.	56,993,200
1820	No returns.	68,837,420
1830	2,860,650	70,571,200
1840	13,860,780	85,149,270
1850	42,958,645	104,941,560
1860	69,964,320	121,910,890
1870	179,459,780	134,507,120
1880	345,010,338	135,095,140
1890	400,879,240	264,860,050

c.—*Table showing number of sheep on different dates.*

Year.	Country.	Number of sheep.
1871	Australasia	49,773,584
1891	do	114,628,301
1860	Argentine Republic	16,262,827
1870	do	61,707,827
1880	do	91,582,206
1887	do	103,413,817
1891	do	

VIII. Increase of Wool Product from 1870 to 1890 in Australia, Argentine Republic, United States, Asia, and Africa.

The following table shows the increase of wool product in the countries named:

Countries.	Year.	Production.
		Pounds.
Australia	1870	179,459,780
	1890	400,879,240
Argentine Republic	1870	166,987,500
	1890	295,425,200
United States	1870	154,500,680
	1890	271,342,200
Asia	1870	134,507,120
	1890	264,860,050
Africa	1870	45,968,880
	1890	55,185,780

And see Switzler's *Wool Rep., 1887*, p. 65.

This increase has reduced the world's prices, but, in addition to this, it is possible that the woolgrowers of Australia, or the wool exporters, like the Bradford wool manufacturers, have entered into a conspiracy to sell their wool for less than a fair price, to make American woolgrowers believe the tariff does not protect.

As to Russian wool, see Consular Report No. 116, May. 1890, p. 113.

For the production of wools and the rapid increase thereof in Australasia, South Africa, and River Platte see especially chart at page 54, U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session.

IX.—The World's Production of Wool, 1870–1893.

[From the Boston Wool and Cotton Reporter of February 22, 1894.]

WORLD'S PRODUCT OF WOOL.

House of Representatives, U. S.,
Washington, D. C., February 15, 1894.

Editor of the Wool and Cotton Reporter:

If you can send me the following figures, which I am very anxious to obtain, you will do me a great favor: Total product of wool in the world in the years 1870, 1873, 1880, 1885, 1890, and any later year, if obtainable; the amount produced by each country, and the amount shipped from the principal shipping ports of each country to Europe and the United States.

Very truly, yours,

J. H. Walker.

The total product of wool in the world for the year of 1870 was approximately 1,295,000,000 pounds; in 1880, 1,626,000,000 pounds; in 1889, 1,950,000,000 pounds; in 1891, 2,256,773,600 pounds.

From 1871 to 1881 the total production of the world was 17,080,363,490 pounds, a yearly average of 1,708,036,349. From 1881 to 1891 the total production of the world was 19,462,037,820 pounds, a yearly average of 1,946,203,782 pounds. These figures are compiled from the estimates of the London Board of Trade, and are the only ones which cover this period, except those of the statistician Mulhall, which differ slightly from the foregoing.

Following is a table, based on the estimates of the above-mentioned authority and from United States consular reports and the Department of Agriculture, showing the amount of wool produced in each woolgrowing country of the world for a period of years.

Year.	Countries of production.					
	United States.	Argentine Republic.	Europe.	Africa.	Asia.	Australasia.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
1870	154,000,000	166,987,000	806,940,000	45,968,000	134,507,000	179,459,000
1880	232,500,000	259,824,000	675,495,000	51,928,000	135,095,000	345,010,000
1887	285,000,000	283,047,000	702,654,000	134,790,000	36,354,000	455,470,000
1890	276,000,000	295,425,000	701,658,000	55,185,000	264,860,000	400,879,000
1891	285,000,000	*304,000,000	.....	.....	.....	588,957,000
1892	288,000,000	332,000,000	.....	.....	.....	642,268,000
1893	299,500,000	331,200,000	.....	.....	.....	621,324,000

*The figures for 1891–'92 and 1893 include Montevideo.

It will be noted that in the foregoing the figures for the past 3 years for all countries except the United States, Argentine Republic, and Australasia are not given. This is because no figures have been compiled since 1890.

The total amount of wool produced in the United States in the year of 1870 was 154,000,000 pounds; in 1873, 158,000,000 pounds; in 1880, 232,500,000 pounds; in 1885, 308,000,000 pounds; in 1890, 276,000,000 pounds; in 1891, 285,000,000 pounds; in 1892, 288,000,000 pounds; in 1893, 299,500,000 pounds.

X.—Wool Produced in each State and Territory of the United States for the Years 1840 to 1891, as found in North's Wool Book, and for Years Since.

*Wool produced, imported, exported, and retained for consumption in the United States, 1840–1891.**

[Bureau of Statistics, U. S. Treasury.]

Year ending June 30—	Production.	Imports.	Total production and imports.	Exports.			Retained for home consumption.	Per cent of imports.
				Domestic	Foreign.	Total.		
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Per cent.*
1840...	35, 802, 114	9, 898, 740	45, 700, 854	.....	85, 528	85, 528	45, 615, 326	21·7
1850...	52, 516, 059	18, 695, 294	71, 212, 253	85, 898	.....	85, 898	71, 176, 355	26·3
1860...	60, 264, 913	26, 282, 955	86, 547, 868	1, 055, 926	157, 064	1, 212, 972	85, 334, 896	30·4
1865...	142, 000, 000	44, 420, 375	186, 420, 375	466, 182	679, 281	1, 145, 463	185, 274, 912	23·8
1870...	162, 000, 000	49, 230, 199	211, 230, 199	152, 892	1, 710, 053	1, 862, 945	209, 367, 254	23·3
1871...	160, 000, 000	68, 058, 028	228, 058, 028	25, 195	1, 305, 311	1, 330, 506	226. 727, 522	29·9
1872...	150, 000, 000	126, 507, 409	276, 507, 409	140, 515	2, 343, 937	2, 484, 442	274, 022, 967	44·9
1873...	158, 000, 000	85, 496, 049	243, 496, 049	75, 129	7, 040, 386	7, 115, 515	236, 380, 534	35·1
1874...	170, 000, 000	42, 939, 541	212, 939, 541	319, 600	6, 816, 157	7, 135, 757	205, 803, 784	20·2
1875...	181, 000, 000	54, 901, 760	235, 901, 760	178, 034	3, 567, 627	3, 745, 661	232, 156, 099	23·3
1876...	192, 000, 000	44, 642, 836	236, 642, 836	104, 768	1, 518, 426	1, 623, 194	235, 019, 642	18·9
1877...	200, 000, 000	42, 171, 192	242, 171, 192	79, 599	3, 088, 957	3, 168, 556	239, 002, 636	17·4
1878...	208, 250, 000	48, 449, 079	256, 699, 079	347, 854	5, 952, 221	6, 300, 075	250, 399, 004	18·9
1879...	211, 000, 000	39, 005, 155	250, 005, 155	60, 784	4, 104, 616	4, 165, 400	245, 839, 755	15·6
1880...	232, 500, 000	128, 131, 747	360, 631, 747	191, 551	3, 648, 520	3, 840, 071	356, 791, 676	35·5
1881...	240, 000, 000	55, 964, 236	295, 964, 236	71, 455	5, 507, 534	5, 578, 980	290, 385, 247	18·9
1882...	272, 000, 000	67, 861, 744	399, 861. 744	116, 179	3, 831, 836	3, 948, 015	335, 913, 729	20
1883...	290, 000, 000	70, 575, 478	360, 575, 478	64, 474	4, 010, 043	4, 074, 517	356, 500, 961	19·6
1884...	300, 000, 000	78, 350, 051	378, 350, 651	10, 393	2, 304, 701	2, 315, 094	376, 035, 557	20·7
1885...	308, 000, 000	70, 596, 170	378, 596, 170	88, 006	3, 115, 339	3, 203, 345	375, 392, 825	18·7
1886...	302, 000, 000	129, 084, 958	431, 084, 958	146, 423	6, 534, 426	6, 680, 849	424, 404, 109	29·9
1887...	285, 000, 000	114, 038, 030	399, 038, 030	257, 940	6, 728, 292	6, 986, 232	392, 051, 798	29·1
1888...	269, 000, 000	113, 558, 753	382, 558, 753	22, 164	4, 359, 731	4, 381, 895	378, 176, 858	29·7
1889...	265, 000, 000	126, 487, 729	391, 487, 729	141, 576	3, 263, 094	3, 404, 670	388, 083, 059	32·3
1890...	276, 000, 000	105, 431, 285	381, 431, 285	231, 042	3, 288, 467	3, 519, 509	377, 911, 776	27·6
1891...	285, 000, 000	129, 303, 648	414, 303, 648	291, 922	2, 638, 123	2, 930, 045	411, 373, 603	30·2
1892...	333, 018, 405	134, 622, 366	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
1893...	364, 156, 666	175, 636, 041	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....

* This table differs some from the figures given in the Treasury Department Wool Report, 1888, p. 162, which states wool product as follows: 1860, 100,102,387; 1880, 240,681,751.

NOTE.—The data of production furnished by Department of Agriculture from 1840 to 1891, inclusive.

The imports for 1892–1893 are those entered for consumption.

And see also under PART FIRST, Division A, section V, the wool production as *there* stated. The wool production for 1891, as estimated by the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, was 307,600,407, and for 1892 at 333,018,405. (See U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, p. 289.)

It is ESPECIALLY to be observed that the foregoing table does not include the wool IMPORTED IN THE FORM OF WOOLEN MANUFACTURES.

The foregoing table up to the year 1891 is from North's Wool Book of 1892, p. 26.

In the four fiscal years, 1890 to 1893, inclusive, the imports of unmanufactured wools entered and withdrawn for consumption, with revenue therefrom and average *ad valorem* rate of duty, were, as stated in U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session, page 14, as follows:

Years.	Pounds.	Value.	Duties.	Average ad valorem rate of duty.
1890	109,902,105·15	$16,165,042.78	$5,460,885.82	33·78
1891	119,390,280	17,070,182.78	6,552,267.64	38·38
1892	134,622,366·45	17,697,067.50	7,799,085.63	44·07
1893	175,636,041·87	18,403,688.92	8,147,220.39	44·72

The "Bulletin of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers," Vol. XXIV, No. 1, Boston, March 1, 1894, pp. 85–91, estimates the wool clip of the United States for 1893 at 301,538,183 pounds "washed and unwashed," to which it adds pulled wool 47,000,000 pounds. It estimates the average weight of *clipped* fleece "washed and unwashed" at 6·38 pounds, with an average shrinkage of 59·27 per cent, making 122,803,776 *scoured* pounds.

In the States east of the Mississippi River and north of Virginia a *portion only* of the wool is washed on the sheep's back. In other localities wool is generally sold unwashed.

C.

PART THIRD.—PRINCIPAL WOOL IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

I.—*Imports of wool in the United States, 1884 to 1893, with countries of production, so far as direct imports are concerned.*

The following is from House Ex. Doc. No. 71, Fifty-third Congress, second session:

PRINCIPAL WOOL IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, WITH CUSTOMS DUTIES COLLECTED BY FOREIGN COUNTRIES ON SUCH EXPORTS. 1893. BY WORTHINGTON C. FORD, CHIEF BUREAU OF STATISTICS, TREASURY DEPARTMENT.

WOOL.

*Imports of clothing wools and wools of class 1 into the United States.**

Year ending June 30—	Total.	United Kingdom.	Australasia.	British Africa.	Brazil.	Chile.	Uruguay.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
1884	21,175,228	8,692,907	7,865,579	1,478,164	341,858	77,949	1,638,166
1885	11,475,889	4,474,256	2,120,746	1,008,876	263,437	36,096	2,123,040
1886	40,968,537	12,879,061	7,680,496	2,043,544	1,056,476	179,917	12,362,239
1887	17,963,982	6,368,770	4,368,242	1,778,532	235,028	520,059	2,585,292
1888	23,039,679	11,856,153	6,133,191	1,098,428	271,072	120,880	2,595,419
1889	29,224,522	9,957,566	10,137,788	1,243,831	387,172	43,097	5,666,338
1890	16,649,480	11,810,519	1,401,281	1,041,895	67,981	783,575	161,085
1891	32,230,935	20,544,318	7,851,891	1,751,010	123,271	314,235	997,176
1892	50,262,796	26,146,932	15,296,946	1,097,131	601,415	1,605,325	4,724,736
1893	43,311,565	29,719,251	9,072,239	2,066,548	847,728	504,436	597,811

* For description of classes of wool see pars. 376, 377, and 378, tariff law 1890.

These tables, of course, only show the *direct* imports from countries named, not those which came through London, Liverpool, and other ports.—Wm. Lawrence, Bellefontaine, Ohio, March, 1894.

*Imports of combing wools and wools of Class 2 into the United States.**

Year ending June 30—	Total.	United Kingdom.	Canada.	Turkey in Europe.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
1884	4,414,253	3,414,130	814,171	.....
1885	2,780,751	2,467,037	303,156	343
1886	7,198,534	6,298,043	312,436	121,110
1887	10,721,753	9,500,132	281,516	680,327
1888	5,639,528	5,026,821	278,696	203,436
1889	6,871,666	6,468,984	243,978	37,931
1890	7,658,806	6,987,404	209,227	403,238
1891	6,667,023	5,527,952	898,341	145,865
1892	5,826,574	3,407,755	1,039,811	1,060,585
1893	6,736,201	4,645,548	1,300,062	704,964

* For description of classes of wool see para. 376, 377, and 378, tariff law 1890.

*Imports of carpet wools and wools of Class 3 into the United States.**

Year ending June 30—	Total.	United Kingdom.	China.	Russia—Baltic.	Russia—Black.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
1884	52,761,170	20,127,231	1,036,766	2,426,337	10,162,503
1885	56,339,530	15,439,411	1,140,611	3,914,366	12,237,026
1886	80,917,887	30,510,849	2,769,917	5,840,000	11,823,056
1887	85,352,295	34,211,028	3,270,303	4,329,076	13,728,988
1888	84,879,546	28,053,103	4,628,309	6,393,235	10,081,696
1889	90,891,541	37,496,852	5,745,127	4,060,352	7,003,037
1890	81,122,999	27,881,881	8,457,762	4,870,005	9,401,545
1891	90,405,690	26,362,331	10,624,067	13,639,347	10,883,388
1892	92,581,282	13,918,484	13,819,699	19,818,627	12,642,082
1893	122,386,072	26,742,905	20,744,689	16,575,721	14,259,512

Year ending June 30—	Turkey in Asia.	Argentine Republic.	Chile.	Turkey in Europe.	France.	Austria-Hungary.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
1884	4,913,770	5,279,290	1,163,054	332,055	4,019,539	565,512
1885	5,455,457	9,851,121	1,704,509	118,595	1,986,416	106,487
1886	4,966,942	10,456,556	1,775,188	371,440	6,858,186	464,229
1887	8,835,423	6,228,300	2,008,617	690,387	8,560,241	208,403
1888	9,860,686	11,300,584	2,011,877	918,173	9,378,038	117,378
1889	11,793,942	8,279,626	711,605	1,401,019	9,783,947	643,045
1890	6,617,529	13,583,448	1,506,086	852,830	6,219,191	11,977
1891	5,629,559	13,641,642	945,250	914,615	5,838,292	911,727
1892	9,109,258	13,865,411	769,585	1,398,357	4,787,178	1,046,567
1893	13,316,069	13,712,673	1,140,453	2,533,638	8,091,639	2,846,444

* For description of classes of wool see para. 376, 377, and 378, tariff law 1890.

PRODUCTION, PRICES, ETC., OF WOOL.

Of raw materials used in the textile industries wool naturally occupies first place as an import. For some years the prices of domestic and foreign wools have been falling; and with an embarrassed industry in more than one country the situation promised to develop a crisis. In 1891 there was a remarkable increased production of colonial and River Plate wools, about 18 per cent, "an increase which, taken in the aggregate, has never before been equaled quantitatively, though proportionately it has been surpassed." *a* Prices fell with this enlarged supply, and would have fallen more but for large purchases by manufacturers in England, "not to feed actual demand, but simply to employ machin-

ery." In 1892 the same influence was felt, and, on the same authority just quoted, "the production of wool is still in the ascendant, and forces the pace of the consumption at cost prices." Low as were the prices of wools in 1891 they were lower in 1892, and lower still in 1893. The price of manufactured goods generally was affected to an even greater degree through the heavy output of manufactures, and only in certain lines of manufactures was a profit returned.

The result points to a check in the growth of production. "There are indications that the expanding power of the great centers of production is reaching its limits. The home clips in Europe have long been stationary, and the same may now be said of the production in the United States. The River Plate clip rather fluctuates than advances, the average production of the past five years being but 5 per cent higher than that of the five preceding years. At the Cape, too, little progress has been made since 1888. But in Australia the production, aided by a succession of good seasons, has risen in a striking manner, the increase in the number of sheep being no less than 50 per cent in the short space of six years; and it is here that a check seems to be impending. The colonies of Victoria and New South Wales are reported to be fully stocked; in many cases overstocked. It is the same in such parts of Queensland as are used for sheep growing, and though pastoral country in that colony is still unoccupied, there is very small likelihood of its being taken up in the present state of prices."*

The full extent of the increased production of wool upon the estimated quantity of the world's supply may be gauged by the figures given in the wool report of Helmuth, Schwartze & Co. In 1890 the production of Europe and North America of raw wool, in the state as received, was 910,000,000 pounds; in 1891, 918,000,000 pounds; and in 1893, 949,000,000 pounds. To these figures must be added the imports of Australasian, Cape, River Plate, and other wools, amounting in all to 1,034,000,000 pounds in 1890; 1,203,000,000 pounds in 1891, and 1,275,000,000 pounds in 1892. The greatest increase was in River Plate wools, 272,000,000 pounds in 1890, and 368,000,000 pounds in 1892. Next in order came the Australasian wools, more important quantitatively, but showing a less increase proportionately, 511,000,000 in 1890, and in 644,000,000 pounds in 1892. The grand total, therefore, of the world's supply in these years was 1,944,000,000 pounds in 1890; 2,121,000,000 pounds in 1891, and 2,224,000,000 pounds in 1892. As the loss in weight is nearly 50 per cent by scouring, the net weight in each year was estimated at 1,054,000,000 pounds in 1890; 1,137,000,000 in 1891, and 1,180,000,000 in 1892. The consumption of clean wool per head of population in Europe and North America was 2·57 pounds in 1890, and 2·82 pounds in 1892, the latter figure being the largest per capita consumption recorded since 1883.

The results of the sales of colonial wool in the London market in the first half of 1893 properly fall within the scope of this report. In the January sales 275,585 bales were catalogued against 313,132 bales in 1892. In the April sales 346,680 bales were catalogued against 354,153 bales in 1892. Out of these offerings in 1893 25,000 bales were purchased on American account and four-fifths of these purchases, that is 20,000 bales, were purchased in the January sales.

The distribution of these large quantities of raw wool for consumption is not without interest. If we take the average consumption of wool in the woolen industries of Great Britain, Continental Europe,

* Helmuth, Schwartze & Co.'s circular.

and North America for the years 1889 to 1891, we have Great Britain, 209,600,000 kilos; Continental, 516,600,000 kilos; North America, 200,400,000 kilos; a total of 920,600,000 kilos. Taking in like manner the consumption for the year 1892 we have Great Britain, 212,000,000 kilos, or an increase of 1·12 per cent on the average for the three years 1889–'91; Continental Europe, 564,300,000 kilos, an increase of 10·5 per cent; North America, 233,300,000 kilos, an increase of 16½ per cent. The total consumption in 1892 was 1,009,600,000 kilos, or an increase of 9·66 per cent. The woolen industry of England has thus remained nearly stationary in the period covered by these figures, while the industries of Continental Europe and North America show large increases.

Such was the general condition of supplies of wool in the foreign market in 1890–'92; large production, low prices, and heavy consumption. In the United States the general facts for the three years 1890–'92 were as follows:

Year.	Number of sheep.	Average price.	Value of animals.	Pounds of wool.*
		Dollars.	*Dollars.*	
1890	44,336,072	2.27	100,659,761	309,474,856
1891	43,431,136	2.51	108,397,447	307,401,507
1892	44,938,365	2.58	116,121,270	333,018,405

*Estimate of J. P. Truitt, of Philadelphia.

II.—*Imports of Australasian and other wools into the United States and other countries.*

(*a.*) Stated by the Boston American Wool and Cotton Reporter of February 22, 1894.

We have not at hand statistics showing the actual number of pounds of wool shipped from each wool-producing country to Europe and the United States as far back as 1870, but will give you what are obtainable.

The total amount of wool shipped from the River Plate to Europe in 1886–'87 was 329,000 bales (800 pounds to the bale); to the United States, 13,000 bales; in 1887–'88, to Europe, 358,000 bales; to the United States, 16,000 bales; in 1888–'89, to Europe, 402,000 bales; to United States, 19,000 bales; in 1889–'90, to Europe, 303,000 bales; to United States, 14,000 bales; in 1890–'91, to Europe, 362,000 bales; to United States, 18,000 bales; in 1891–'92, to Europe, 392,000 bales; to United States, 23,000 bales; in 1892–'93, to Europe, 396,000 bales; to United States, 18,000 bales.

The total amount of wool shipped from Australasia to continent of Europe in 1883–'84 was 50,758 bales (350 pounds to the bale); to United States, 22,575 bales; in 1884–'85, to Europe, 71,469 bales; to the United States, 6,621 bales; in 1885–'86, to Europe, 63,859 bales; to the United States, 24,457 bales; in 1886–'87, to Europe, 117,699 bales; to the United States, 15,138 bales; in 1887–'88, to Europe, 97,238 bales; to the United States, 21,913 bales; in 1888–'89, to Europe, 139,083 bales; to the United States, 36,724 bales; in 1889–'90, to Europe, 233,715 bales; to the United States, 11,311 bales; in 1890–'91, to Europe, 270,293 bales; to the United States, 26,828 bales; in 1891–'92, to Europe, 281,402 bales; to the United States, 35,156 bales; in 1892–'93, to Europe, 407,745 bales; to the United States, 23,863 bales. The season covered by the foregoing figures is from November to November.

The total shipments of wool from Australasian ports to London for the season of 1884–'85 were 1,033,756 bales; for 1885–'85, 1,042,026 bales; for 1886–'87, 1,048,884 bales; for 1887–'88, 1,153,598 bales; for 1888–'89, 1,157,991 bales; for 1889–'90, 1,155,004 bales; for 1890–'91, 1,303,958 bales; for 1891–'92, 1,518,477 bales; for 1892–'93, 1,343,606 bales.

The total shipments of wool from Cape Colony to England in 1888 were 280,186 bales; to the continent of Europe, 91,000 bales; to America, 7,968 bales; in 1889, to England, 302,816 bales; to the Continent, 100,000 bales; to America, 7,103 bales; in 1890, to England, 278,719 bales; to the Continent, 22,000 bales; to America, 6,724 bales; in 1891, to England, 307,694 bales; to the Continent, 95,000 bales; to America, 7,686 bales; in 1892, to England, 276,891 bales; to the Continent, 84,000 bales; to America, 7,993 bales; in 1893, to England, 278,923 bales; to the Continent, 101,000.

And see E, PART FIFTH, section III of this chapter, as to "importation of Colonial wool into Europe and America, *1860–1893.*"

III. China wools—Direct imports.

1. The Boston Wool and Cotton Reporter, January 14, 1892, says:

The rapid increase in importation of China wools is largely due to the opening up of new territory in that empire. The extension of railroads is making their wool-growing sections accessible—supposed to be immense.

2. The direct imports into the United States.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, BUREAU OF STATISTICS,
Washington, D. C., February 27, 1894.

AS TO THE IMPORTATION OF CHINA WOOLS.

It was in 1869 the first importation was made, and the figures for each year since have been:

	Quantity.	Value.
	Pounds.	
1869, China, including Hongkong and Singapore	12,513	$1,134
1870, China, including Hongkong and Singapore	9,016	1,212
1871, China	6,707	843
1872, China	58,310	6,834
1873, China	101	55
1874, China	.....	.....
1875, China	18,015	1,406
1876, China	68,434	5,655
1877, China	.....	.....
1878, China	.....	.....
1879, China	21,271	2,068
1880, China	66,751	9,188
1881, China	208,188	23,354
1882, China	167,819	17,689
1883, China	630,742	63,807
1884 China, combing wools	4,556	449
1884 China, carpet wools	1,036,766	101,535
1885, China, carpet wools	1,140,611	102,702
1886 China, clothing wools	350	27
1886 China, combing wools	33	10
1886, China	2,769,917	229,210
1887 Combing wools	1,011	26
1887 Carpet wools	3,270,303	294,392
1888 Clothing wools	84,577	9,785
1888 Carpet wools	4,628,309	385,351
1889 Combing wools	35,706	7,811
1889 Carpet wools	5,745,127	492,928
1890 Clothing wools	19,106	3,227
1890 Combing wools	110,647	11,678
1890 Carpet wools	8,457,762	799,[illegible]50
1891 Class 2	9,532	213
1891 Class 3	10,624,067	1,045,114
1892 Class 1	9,303	2,409
1892 Class 2	60,955	16,365
1892 Class 3	13,819,699	1,299,941
1893 Class 1	9,204	823
1893 Class 3	20,744,689	1,811,427

There is no way of giving you the duties paid upon these respective quantities, save by taking the tariff law and multiplying by the respective duties. Trusting this is what you wish, I am,

Yours, respectfully,

WORTHINGTON C. FORD,
Chief of Bureau.

3. These are the *direct* imports. How much came through London and other ports is not shown by the customs returns.

In a memorial dated June 1, 1891, Hon. Columbus Delano and Wm. Lawrence asked the Secretary of the Treasury and the commission on custom-house wool samples to classify Chinese wools as first-class

wools. (See U. S. Senate Ex. Doc. No. 1, Fifty-third Congress, first session, March 27, 1893, executive session.) They are being improperly imported as third-class, as shown in this document.

They are not made into carpets, but are *used in the manufacture of clothing*—a fact admitted by the free-wool Boston Wool and Cotton Reporter of June 15, 1893. (See Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session.)

The China wools thus supplant our American coarse combing wools of the mutton breed.

The *low price* is the cause of the increase of imports.

When the McKinley act of October 1, 1890, became a law, they had not attracted the attention of American wool-growers, and hence they were not specifically named in that law, as they should have been.

The *total exports* from China to *all countries* have been, as stated by U. S. Consul-General J. A. Leonard, as follows:

Year.	Quantity.	Year.	Quantity.
	Pounds.		*Pounds.*
1880	787,759	1886	3,446,778
1881	967,841	1887	5,140,810
1882	1,157,100	1888	6,643,350
1883	1.827,686	1889	9,829,498
1884	2,645,970	1890	10,659,152
1885	3,237,885		

And as silver is legal tender in China, wool can with gold purchase of silver be bought at a heavy discount; the cost to importers is almost nominal.

4. China wools all used for the manufacture of clothing in the United States.

That able and generally candid free-wool journal, the Boston American Wool and Cotton Reporter, of June 15, 1893, p. 756, referring to the *rapid increase* and vast amounts of third-class wools imported, and to my argument before the committee of Congress when the McKinley bill was under consideration, said:

The *increase* for a series of years has averaged about 5,000,000 pounds annually, *the increase the present year being nearly three times the annual average.* * * * This large increase is *not* attributable to an increased consumption by carpet manufacturers; an analysis of the imports of the *descriptions of wools brought in would make this evident.* * * * The wools are being used for *clothing purposes*, going into men's wear, dress goods, cloakings, overcoatings, blankets, knit goods, etc. This is potent in many ways.

* * * Whatever may be fairly said against Judge Lawrence [by free-wool men and carpet manufacturers.—W. L.] there is a good deal of logic in his position on this particular matter. The *consumption of class-three wools has become large enough to affect prices of domestic wools*—these wools being a greater factor in determining prices of domestic wools than is generally believed. When the McKinley bill was under discussion the evidence was that only a *small fraction* of carpet wools was used for clothing purposes, mainly for blankets, and this evidence was undoubtedly correct. SINCE THEN FASHION and excessive competition in the goods market have made it possible to utilize these wools in the manufacture of clothing. A tariff that comprehends *protection of domestic* wool should take cognizance of these facts.

This is true. Every pound of China wool supplants just so much American wool.

This, from a free-wool source, is sufficient evidence that conditions have *so changed* that the law should be amended to meet them with increased duties, and especially as to third-class wools.

And it has been elsewhere shown that other changes should be made to secure proper protection. (See Senate Mis. Doc. 149, first session

Fifty-first Congress; Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, p. 300; Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session, pp. 37–38.)

IV. *Inadequate protection no better than free wool.*

1. The classification of China wool as class three was never intended by the framers of the McKinley act of 1890.

The system of *ad valorem duties* as to third-class wools is vicious. It was forced on Congress by persistent efforts of some carpet manufacturers, against the original purpose of Congress. The *inadequacy* of present duties has been shown in U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 149, Fifty-first Congress, first session; Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35 and Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session.

2. Inadequate protection is but little better, if any, than no protection. This has been ably demonstrated in an editorial in the Weekly New York Tribune of February 27, 1894, as follows:

SHAM PROTECTION.

This is the time to remember that duties which do not protect can only plunder consumers without doing any good. If sugar grown in Louisiana kept alive, but did not advance, with a duty of 2 cents per pound, and has prospered only since bounties were substituted, it may fairly be inferred that a duty of only 1 cent per pound would give the market to foreign producers, ruin many of the plantations, and prevent the improvements necessary to make the industry permanently profitable. In this way a duty which is only *almost enough* may crush an industry as completely as abolition of all duties—a fact which the Louisiana men never could understand when they were dealing with Northern manufactures. But the duty which does not develop home production may and generally does enhance prices, so that it is paid by consumers and not by foreigners. The bounty took about $10,000,000 from the Treasury, but would in time have secured control of the markets to home producers so completely that the cost of all sugar to consumers would have been cheapened. Instead, a duty of 1 cent per pound would take about $38,000,000 from the consumers directly, and would probably fail altogether to build up the home industry or to cheapen sugar for the people.

This is the principle which it is most necessary to apply in judging of the small duties which, according to reports, may be imposed on coal and iron ore and other products. The question is whether protection is desirable. If it is, if it would develop home production and ultimately secure cheaper products, then it is infinitely better for all concerned that it should be sufficient protection to bring about those results surely and quickly. *An inadequate duty, which does not stimulate home prosperity, can never bring to consumers the return of cheaper goods, nor the larger benefits of a better demand for American labor and American products.* In that case, like the inadequate duty of 1 per cent per pound so long foolishly imposed on tin plate, the duty can protect nothing and do no good, except that it may extort from consumers of a particular article a revenue for the Treasury. The duties said to be contemplated by Democrats on the committee are of this sort. Such duties would not suffice to secure the advantages of protection or to avert the evils of free trade, but would only tax the consumers of one article rather than the consumers of another.

Of course, to do this would be to "keep the word of promise to the ear, but break it to the hope." Texas, Arkansas, and Missouri have been making a tariff for manufacturing and mining States. It is not to be expected that a tariff from such a source will grant anything more than a sham protection.

3. *Blackstone shows how England gave* REAL PROTECTION *by* PROHIBITING *the importation of woolen goods.*

He says:

In the reign of Edward the Third * * * much was done under the auspices of this magnanimous prince for *establishing our domestic manufactures* by PROHIBITING the exportation of English wool, and [by PROHIBITING] THE IMPORTATION, or WEAR OF FOREIGN CLOTH *or furs;* AND by encouraging cloth workers from other countries to settle here. (4. Blackstone Com., 428.)

And see 4th Blackstone, 154, as to the offense of "owling"—"transporting wool or sheep out of the kingdom." And for the encourage-

ment of woolgrowing and manufacturing the law prior to 54 George III *c.* 96 and *c.* 108, required the *dead* to be buried in *woolen goods.* (1 Blackstone Com., p. 58.)

4. *The prohibition of imports is* NOT *an extreme measure.*

If an evil exists, and a *complete remedy* can be found, is it wise to adopt only a *partial remedy* and permit the evil in part to remain?

If it is wise to *import a part of* such wools and mutton sheep as we need, and can produce here at fair prices, it must be wise to import *all.* If under such conditions it is wise to produce part here, it is wise to produce *all;* an *inadequate remedy* is but little better than no remedy. Inadequate protection is but little better than no protection.

(See U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, pp. 283–285.)

D. PART FOURTH.

WOOL RETROSPECT, MAY, 1892.

[U. S. Department of Agriculture, report of the Statistician. New series. Report No. 95. A wool retrospect.—French tariff and reciprocity treaties. Published by authority of the Secretary of Agriculture, by J. R. Dodge, A. M., Statistician. May, 1892.]

I. *A wool retrospect.*

The inquiries concerning the statistical situation of wool render necessary an exposition, which is brief, but comprehensive, showing the estimated annual numbers of sheep and domestic production of wool since 1870, the average wool supply by decades since 1840, the annual importation of wool since 1870, and the average importation of woolens by decades since 1830. The imports for the last eight years are classified according to the present tariff schedules.

The numbers of sheep have been estimated with much care and labor since 1870. In the first half of the previous decade no estimates were made, though numbers increased abnormally during the war period. In 1866 correspondents were appointed throughout the South, but the service was incomplete and crude in all sections, slowly improving and becoming comparatively effective by 1870. The large flocks of the period were cut down ruthlessly in 1868 and 1869 from the low prices throughout the world, the result of plethora and glut, both in wool and woolens, in all markets. The reduction in three or four years was doubtless 15 to 20 per cent, but the annual estimates can not be made with reliably close approximation. The tariff of 1867 stayed the advance tide and ameliorated the situation, but could not prevent the slaughter of a portion of the flocks, which is a result that always follows unsatisfactory prices.

From nearly 32,000,000 sheep in 1871 there was a gradual increase to over 50,000,000 in thirteen years, or 59 per cent. Then a slight change in the tariff occurred, followed by revenue decisions liberal in certain directions, and also coincident with reduction of wool values in foreign markets, precipitating the inevitable effect of discouragement, and reducing numbers over 7,000,000 in four years, or 16 per cent. Since 1888 numbers of sheep have increased and prices have advanced, with slight increase in wool values, subject to temporary fluctuation. The average farm values of sheep in these periods of decline and of tendency to recuperation are thus presented:

Years.	Value.	Years.	Value.
1885	$2.14	1889	$2.13
1886	1.91	1890	2.27
1887	2.01	1891	2.50
1888	2.05	1892	2.58

The fall in the price of foreign wool occurred in 1882, when the British average of imports declined from 27.9 cents in 1881 to 24.8 cents, but at the beginning of 1883

the average of our flocks was $2.53, a little higher than the year before, the decline manifesting itself in January, 1884, when the average fell to $2.37, continuing to drop annually to 1886, and showing no considerable rise until 1890.

II.—*Number, average price, and value of sheep, and the number of pounds of wool grown in the United States during the years 1871 to 1892.*

Years.	Number.	Average price.	Value.	Pounds of wool.
1871	31,851,000	$2.33	$74,035,837	153,000,000
1872	31,675,300	2.80	88,771,197	150,000,000
1873	33,002,400	2.96	97,922,350	156,000,000
1874	33,938,200	2.61	88,690,569	170,000,000
1875	33,783,600	2.79	94,320,652	181,000,000
1876	35,935,300	2.61	93,666,318	192,000,000
1877	35,804,200	2.26	80,892,683	200,000,000
1878	35,740,500	2.26	80,603,062	208,250,000
1879	38,123,800	2.07	79,023,984	211,000,000
1880	40,765,900	2.21	90,230,537	232,500,000
1881	43,569,899	2.39	104,070,861	240,000,000
1882	45,016,224	2.37	106,595,954	272,000,000
1883	49,237,291	2.53	124,365,835	290,000,000
1884	50,626,626	2.37	119,902,706	300,000,000
1885	50,360,243	2.14	107,960,650	308,000,000
1886	48,322,331	1.91	92,443,867	302,000,000
1887	44,759,314	2.01	89,872,839	285,000,000
1888	43,544,755	2.05	89,279,926	269,000,000
1889	42,599,079	2.13	90,640,369	265,000,000
1890	44,336,072	2.27	100,659,761	276,000,000
1891	43,431,136	2.50	108,397,447	285,000,000
1892	44,938,365	2.58	116,121,270	.....

Comparing 1892 with 1871 the increase in sheep has been 41 per cent, and in wool 86 per cent. This is only partially due to increase in weight of fleece, as the increased use of mutton and lamb gives a larger proportion of wool from animals slaughtered during each year, and of course a larger number butchered in proportion to numbers existing at the date of enumeration. This tendency will increase, and it is hoped that amateur wool statisticians may take it into consideration and not apportion the entire wool supply among the animals that happen to be alive at the date of enumeration, by which they make the average weight of fleece too large.

III. *Statement showing the imports and exports of wool from 1870 to 1891, inclusive.*

Years.	Imports.		Exports of domestic wool.*	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
1870	49,230,199	$6,743,350	152,892	$54,923
1871	68,058,028	9,780,443	25,195	8,762
1872	122,256,499	26,214,195	140,515	36,434
1873	85,496,049	20,433,938	75,129	17,624
1874	42,939,451	8,250,306	319,600	72,169
1875	54,901,760	11,072,259	178,034	62,754
1876	44,642,836	8,247,617	104,768	13,845
1877	42,171,192	7,156,944	79,599	26,446
1878	48,449,079	8,363,015	347,854	93,258
1879	39,005,155	5,034,545	60,784	17,644
1880	128,131,747	23,727,650	191,551	71,967
1881	55,964,236	9,703,968	71,455	19,217
1882	67,861,744	11,096,050	116,179	37,327
1883	70,575,478	10,949,331	64,474	22,114
1884	78,350,651	12,384,709	10,393	3,073
1885	70,596,170	8,879,923	88,006	16,739
1886	129,084,958	16,746,081	2,138,080	476,274
1887	114,038,030	16,424,479	257,940	78,032
1888	113,558,753	15,887,217	22,164	5,273
1889	126,487,729	17,974,515	141,576	23,065
1890	105,431,285	15,264,083	231,042	33,543
1891	129,303,648	18,231,372	291,922	39,423

* Exports of all domestic products to Canada are imperfectly recorded, but a small portion of the shipments by rail being reported.

Imports of raw wool by grades.

Year ending June 30—	Clothing wools.		Combing wools.		Carpet and other similar wools.		Total.	
	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.	Pounds.	Value.
1884	21, 175, 228	$4, 807, 636	4, 414, 253	$1, 017, 311	52, 761, 170	$6, 559, 762	78, 350, 651	$12, 384, 709
1885	11, 475, 889	2, 262, 824	2, 780, 751	669, 604	56, 339, 530	5, 947, 495	70, 596, 170	8, 879, 923
1886	40, 968, 537	6, 651, 260	7, 198, 534	1, 608, 764	80, 917, 887	8, 486, 057	129, 084, 958	16, 746, 081
1887	17, 963, 982	3, 431, 567	10, 721, 753	2, 528, 560	85, 352, 295	10, 464, 352	114, 038, 030	16, 424, 479
1888	23, 039, 679	4, 541, 242	5, 639, 528	1, 330, 565	84, 879, 546	10, 015, 410	113, 558, 753	15, 887, 217
1889	29, 224, 522	5, 971, 031	6, 871, 666	1, 586, 294	90, 391, 511	10, 417, 190	126, 487, 729	17, 974, 515
1890	16, 649, 480	3, 894, 760	7, 658, 806	1, 905, 970	81, 122, 999	9, 463, 353	105, 431, 285	15, 264, 683
1891	32, 230, 935	6, 919, 913	6, 667, 023	1, 551, 490	90, 405, 690	9, 759, 969	129, 303, 648	18, 231, 372
Total	192, 728, 252	38, 480, 233	51, 952, 314	12, 198, 588	622, 170, 658	71, 113, 588	866, 851, 224	121, 792, 379
Average	24, 091, 032	4, 810, 029	6, 494, 039	1, 524, 820	77, 771, 332	8, 889, 199	108, 356, 403	15, 224, 047

This "carpet wool," the body of our imports, has averaged in value 11.4 cents per pound during the past eight years, while the combing wool, the second classification, costs more than twice as much, or 23.5 cents. This fact accounts for the purchase of only 6 pounds in every 100 of this class. It is cheap wool that is wanted, especially for carpets. Our wool is largely of the merino class, but our imports of that character cost only 20 cents since 1883, and have comprised 22 per cent of our wool receipts from foreign sources.

For purposes of comparison, and to show the progress of wool importation, the records of seventy years are presented, not in annual detail, but by periods of ten years. While our manufactures were undeveloped, prior to 1860, there was of course little wool imported; in fact, there was little used in comparison with the present profuse consumption. For thirty years past the amount, considered in relation to the population, has advanced but little, notwithstanding the immense increase in manufacturing, whether considered absolutely or with regard to population.

IV. *Net importations of wool for seven decades.*

Periods.	Aggregate.	Annual average.	Average imports per capita.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
1821–'30	16, 936, 307	1, 881, 812	·2
1831–'40	62, 865, 275	6, 286, 528	·4
1841–'50	139, 764, 592	13, 976, 459	·7
1851–'60	230, 106, 287	23, 010, 629	·9
1861–'70	501, 611, 132	50, 161, 113	1·4
1871–'80	640, 916, 638	64, 091, 664	1·5
1881–'90	889, 005, 571	88, 900, 557	1·6

This table gives an impression, possibly, to the superficial observer of a large manufacture of foreign wool in clothing, which is not the case. The mills use very little foreign wool for such purposes, even with the considerable proportion of carpet wool that may enter, by the culling and "mixing" processes, into such fabrics, as 72 per cent of all imports are "carpet wools," and only 22 of merino and 6 of English breeds, as is shown by the statements of imports by classifications according to existing revenue law.

The average value of our imports for eight years is 14 cents per pound. The average value of British imports (averaging 580,014,243 pounds per annum) is 20.9 cents. Why does Great Britain pay 49 per cent more for wool than the United States? Simply because most of ours is carpet wool, not much used for clothing. The clothing wool (classification 1), which has been imported since 1883, cost 20 cents per pound, the carding 23.5 cents, and the average of both 20.7, almost identical with the British average.

V. In this connection, as well as to show the course of the world's prices and the heavy reduction (25 per cent) as compared with the values of 1880, the following official figures of Great Britain for eleven years are given:

Years.	Pounds.	Value.	Price per pound.
			Cents.
1880	460, 960, 907	$127, 474, 610	27.7
1881	447, 521, 441	124, 788, 306	27.9
1882	484. 930, 324	120, 423, 942	24.8
1883	494, 428, 802	121, 008, 627	24.5
1884	518, 637, 800	126. 734, 770	24.4
1885	501, 130, 837	101, 965, 439	20.3
1886	592, 544, 221	108, 951, 338	18.4
1887	573, 180, 904	117, 957, 921	20.6
1888	634, 943, 685	125, 798, 626	19.8
1889	696, 011, 487	138, 023. 040	19.8
1890	629, 236, 207	131, 058, 563	20.8

A heavy reduction, as shown by these figures, occurred in 1882. After three years of quite uniform values a decline quite as heavy occurred in 1885, amounting to fully 4 cents. The next year's level was lower, but the average, with this exception, has been close to 20 cents for six years past.

There is a little uncertainty as to the domestic production of wool between 1820 and 1840, but the census enumerations from 1840 afford data for approximations of numbers of sheep and supply of wool, which are thus indicated by decades.

Average per annum of total wool reserves for each decade since 1840.

Periods.	Product.	Imports.	Total supply.	Per capita supply.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
1841-'50	46, 000, 000	13, 976, 459	59, 976, 459	3
1851-'60	66, 000, 000	23, 010. 629	89, 010, 629	3·3
1861-'70	150, 000, 000	50, 161, 113	200, 161, 113	5·4
1871-'80	185, 575, 000	64, 091, 664	249, 666, 664	5·7
1881-'90	280, 700, 000	88, 900, 557	369, 600, 557	6·6

This table shows an increase in the wool supply from 3 pounds per head to 6·6 pounds, more than doubling the manufacture in proportion to population.

This suggests the interesting fact, illustrative of advance in our standard of living, that the consumption per head has also more than doubled in the same time. Fifty years ago scarcely 4 pounds of wool for each inhabitant sufficed for the wants of the people. Now about 8·3 pounds are used, of which nearly 5 pounds are produced in the United States, not quite 1·6 pounds are imported as wool, and about 1·7 pounds are imported in the form of manufactured goods. This, in both dates, includes carpets and all forms of wool manufacture with material for clothing.

VI. *Value of net importations of manufactures of wool.*

Ten years ending—	Aggregate.	Annual average.	Average value per capita.
1830	$82, 900, 615	$8, 290, 062	$0.75
1840	139, 507, 716	13, 950. 772	.94
1850	130, 058, 518	13, 005, 852	.65
1860	313, 332, 730	31, 333, 273	1.16
1870	330, 465, 214	33, 046, 521	.94
1880	395, 376, 936	39, 537, 694	.89
1890	433, 459. 813	43, 345, 981	.77

The value per head of imports of all manufactures of wool was largest between 1850 and 1860, and have been declining since in each decade, and more rapidly during the past ten years, and is now about the same as for the period from 1820 to 1850. What amount of wool does this importation represent? This subject has been so misrepresented and the public so misled that a correction is important in the interest of truth. The average value of these imports of ten years past is $43,345,981. If foreign manufacturers were so charitable as to make no charge for interest on capital, direction, wear and tear of plant and labor of operatives and artisans, the money would not buy nearly as much wool, at 21·8 cents per pound, the

average cost to Great Britain for the period, as has been repeatedly claimed to be included in these imports; it would buy scarcely 185,000,000 pounds. But it is probable that about half this value is in the cost of manufacture and of other materials for manufacture, including use of capital, deterioration of plant, and profits of manufacture. In this country labor and other cost, including other material, are much greater than the value of wool. In 1880 the census made the value at mill of foreign and domestic wool consumed in the manufacture of "woolens" $67,380,250, and the value of all products $160,606,721, the wool representing but 42 per cent of the value. The percentage of wool cost in Great Britain might exceed 50 per cent of the value of the product and not require 100,000,000 pounds of wool. It is certain that the wool imported in woolens, exclusive of shoddy, cotton, and other substitutes, does not much exceed that quantity and may not equal it, and that the total requirement for consumption for the past ten years has been less than 500,000,000 pounds.

There has apparently been a serious misunderstanding in the minds of many people of the magnitude of our manufactures of wool. The constant and brilliant progress of manufacture, during thirty years past, especially in fancy casimeres and tissues for dress goods, in flannels and in carpets, has brought the industry to a high position among the first of its class in the leading nations of the world.

An impression may have obtained from current public utterances that this country suffers from poverty of wool supply; that manufacturers are under severe stress from a paucity of wool imports, and that consumers are threatened with an era of relative nakedness. On the contrary, our domestic supply of wool is nearly twice as large as that of any leading manufacturing nation in the world; the wool import required to supplement home supplies is a little more than a fourth of the factory supply, mostly needed for carpets; and the amount of wool used in all forms is nearly 500,000,000 pounds, or a fifth of the wool of the world, while the population of the United States is supposed to be less than one-twentieth of the population of the world. If Europe required as much in proportion to population, the wool of the world would not suffice for a supply, though all other people should dress in cotton or in skins of wild beasts.

VII. The following table shows the net imports and home production of the four principal manufacturing countries, the former from official figures for 1890, the latter from estimates in the wool book of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers:

Country.	Imports.	Exports.	Net imports.	Domestic production.	Supply.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
France	371, 722, 377	39, 575, 579	332, 146, 798	124, 803, 000	456, 949, 798
United Kingdom	629, 236, 219	360, 006, 616	269, 229, 603	147, 475, 000	416, 704, 603
United States	129, 303, 648	2, 930, 045	126, 373, 603	285, 000, 000	416, 373, 603
Germany	283, 542, 424	19, 872, 264	263, 670, 160	54, 894, 000	318, 564, 160

While the United Kingdom imports more than a fourth of the world's wool, in addition to domestic product, its exports amount to as much as the German consumption. The table shows that our net supply is very close to that of the United Kingdom. There is little doubt, if our domestic product is permitted to increase, that the United States will soon be the first nation of the world in wool manufacture, as it is first by long odds in the use of wool by its people.

This table also indicates plainly the superior quality of the wool of this country. Other countries import largely wools from hot and arid climates and primitive or nomadic agriculture, which is apt to be harsh and kempy, and weak or uneven of staple, while our imports are very small in proportion, the mass of our sheep being high-grade merino and English breeds, carefully cared for, and fed in rich pastures in a temperate climate. Our wool, therefore, is not excelled, evidently not equaled by that of any other manufacturing country.

VIII. *French tariff and reciprocity treaties.*—In No. 89, October, 1891, a table showing the tariffs on agricultural products levied by the principal countries of Europe together with a showing of reciprocity treaties negotiated by this Government up to that time, was presented.

Since that date a new tariff has been adopted in France which materially changes the rates presented in the report referred to. The new treaty, which was signed January 11, 1892, and went into effect on the 1st of February following, provides the following rates of duty on the principal products of agriculture, the rate under the old tariff being given to facilitate comparisons:

French tariff.

[Kilogram=2·2046 pounds.]

Articles.		Old duty.	Present duty.
Animals.			
Oxen	per 100 kilos	a$7.33	$1.93
Cows	do	a3.86	1.93
Calves	do		2.32
Sheep	do	a.96	2.90
Lambs	per head		.29
Hogs	per 100 kilos	a.19	1.54
Poultry	do		3.86
Fresh meats:			
Mutton	do	2.32	4.63
Pork	do		2.32
Beef	do		4.63
Salt meats:			
Pork, ham, and bacon	do	1.64	4.63
Beef	do		5.79
Lard		Free.	2.80
Dairy products:			
Milk, fresh	per 100 kilos		.97
Cheese:			
Soft	do	1.16	4.63
Hard	do	1.54	
Butter:			
Fresh	do	2.50	2.51
Salt	do	2.90	
Breadstuffs:			
Wheat	do	.97	.97
Flour, extraction 70 per cent and over	do	1.54	1.54
Flour, extraction between 60 and 70 per cent	do		1.93
Flour, extraction 60 per cent and less	do		2.32
Oats, rye, barley, and corn	do	*.29 †Free.	.58
Tobacco (Government monopoly)		Free.	Free.

a Per head. * Rye. † Corn.

An examination of this statement shows that there has been a considerable increase in duties upon almost all the items specified. The most important changes are noted in the case of fresh and salt meats, cheese, lard, and flour.

E.—PART FIFTH.

PRICES OF WOOLS AT DIFFERENT PERIODS.

I. *Boston prices, 1868 to 1891.*

wool circular of Justice, Bateman & Co., for May 2, 1892, gives the following rison of American and foreign prices:

›wing is a table of American prices for Ohio medium and London prices for .ustralasian medium wools as in blood and shrinkage are the same as Ohio n.

shrinkage, blood, staple, and fiber of an Ohio medium and a New Zealand red (which is an Australasian medium) are identical, and when scoured it be difficult to determine which is which. We publish herein in parallel ıs the prices of Ohio and Australasian medium in the fleece and also the d value, so that the difference in the fleece price as well as in the scoured cost year from 1868 to the present time can be seen at a glance. Owing to the great nce in the condition in which Australasian and American wools are usually ted, the comparison of a New Zealand crossbred shrinking 40 per cent, is the ne that can be fairly made with an Ohio medium. The difference in the prices the advantage that American woolgrowers have over their foreign competitors son of the duties that have existed since the passage of the tariff of 1867. tables also show what would have been the price for Ohio medium wool if the London market.

Year.	Ohio medium fleece. Shrinkage, 40 per cent.	Australasian medium fleece. (New Zealand crossbred grease). Shrinkage, 40 per cent.	American scoured medium.	Australasian scoured medium.	Percentage of cost of free wool below protected wool.
.....	$0.43	$0.21½	$0.71½	$0.35¾	50
.....	.50	.21¾	.83½	.36¼	56½
.....	.46	.20¾	.76¼	.34¾	55
.....	.46	.27	.76¼	.45	41½
.....	.72	.31½	.88	.53	40
.....	.68	.28¾	1.13½	.47¾	58
.....	.54	.24¼	.90	.41¼	54
.....	.56	.25	.93½	.41¾	55½
.....	.52	.23½	.86½	.39¾	54
.....	.43	.23¾	.71½	.39¼	45
.....	.45	.22¾	.75	.37¾	50
.....	.45	.21	.58½	.35	40
.....	.55	.23¾	.91½	.39	57
.....	.49	.20¾	.81½	.34	58
.....	.46	.18¾	.76¼	.31	59½
.....	.43	.15¾	.71½	.26	63½
.....	.40	.16¼	.66½	.27	59
.....	.33	.17¾	.55	.29	47
.....	.36	.18¾	.60	.31	48
.....	.38	.19¾	.63½	.32¾	48½
.....	.35	.18¾	.58½	.31	47
.....	.38	.19¾	.63½	.33	48
.....	.37	.20½	.61½	.33¾	45
.....	.37	.20¾	.61½	.34	44½

.tions are in currency. Average, 51 per cent.
ıst column shows the per cent less in London prices than Boston for years stated.

The report of the Secretary of Agriculture of 1889, p. 246, gives the imports of the three classes of wools, clothing, combing, and carpet wools, for the years 1867 and 1889, inclusive. The report then says:

The merino class (clothing wool) takes the place of the wool of the higher cost, that averaged 24·4 cents for the first period (of thirteen years, 1867–1879) and 21·5 for the second (1880–1889), and this is the wool which (to the largest extent) competes directly with the product of this country. The third-class (carpet wool) averaged 14.8 cents for the first period and 12.2 for the second.

These were the importers' prices without the duty added.

II. *Prices, 1824 and 1886.*

The Treasury Department Wool Report of 1887, pp. 109, 228, gives the average prices for similar wools from 1824 to 1886, and without quoting the figures it is sufficient to say the American woolgrower received substantially the foreign price plus the duty. North's Wool Book, Boston, 1892, pp. 28–29, gives the prices from 1824 to 1891 for the months of January, April, July, and October of the Treasury Department (Switzler's Report).

This result is entirely consistent with the other fact stated by the Tariff Commission of 1882.

As a result of augmented production the price of wools has been reduced to the consumer, while at the same time the producer by improving his stock has been enabled to realize as much money from individual animals as he secured in former years. (House Mis. Doc., 2d sess., Forty-seventh Cong., part I, p. 28.)

The average weight of the fleece increased as follows: Weight of fleece, pounds, 1840, 1·9; 1850, 2·4; 1860, 2·7; 1870, 3·5; 1880, 4·8; 1887, 5·1; 1891, 5·5. (S. N. D. North's Wool Book, 1892, p. 15.)

Prices declined also all over the world by reason of the vast increase of the sheep of the world. The world's production of wool was, in pounds, 955,000,000 in 1860, 1,295,000,000 in 1870, 1,627,000,000 in 1880, 1,950,000,000 in 1889, 2,456,773,600 in 1891. (North's Wool Book, 92, 97; Switzler's Wool Report, 1887, diagrams 9, 10, and pp. 226, 227; Consular Report, September, 1889, pp. 7, 13, 165.)

The prices of wools from 1817 to 1885 are shown in Statement No. 17 of Quarterly Report, No. 3, series 1885–6, of the Bureau of Statistics. The Quarterly Report, No. 4, 1886–7, p. 883, shows the price from 1877 to 1887. The New York prices of 1882, 1883, and 1884 are found more satisfactory in Statement No. 42 in regard to wool, etc.; in the special report of the Bureau of Statistics made by Joseph Nimmo, jr., Chief of Bureau, September 10, 1884, "on the operations of the tariff act of March 3, 1883, for the six months ending December 31, 1883, the average prices being as indicated below.

Year.	Fine.	Medium.	Coarse.
	Cents.	*Cents.*	*Cents.*
1882	42	43	31
1883	40¾	42	31
1884 (January)	40	39	32

The New York and Philadelphia prices for different classes of wool from 1824 to 1887 are shown in the special report of 1887 on wool, etc., by the Bureau of Statistics of the Treasury Department (Switzler's Report), table No. 12, pp. 110–118, and table No. 69, p. 228.

Immediately after the act of 1867 the paper money prices of wool declined, because of the increasing value of such money; because all

previous war prices declined; because "large quantities of army cloth ing accumulated during the war were thrown upon the market at exceedingly low prices," and for other reasons shown in the Wool Report of 1887, pp. 61, 62.

III. *Prices in England from 1818 to 1887.*

For prices in England from 1818 to 1887 see Consular Rep. No. 127, April, 1891, p. 592; "Our Sheep and the Tariff," by Lewis, Philadelphia, 1890, p. 101, Table V; American Economist, March 11, 1892, p. 126; same, January 1. 1892, p. 5; Vol. XXI, Bulletin Natl. Assoc. Wool Mfrs., September, 1891, p. 248.

The Bulletin of the Natl. Assoc. of Wool Mfrs., Vol. XXII, June, 1892, p. 114, says:

> The decline from 1867 to this time "has been universal throughout the world. * * * During the entire period * * * the price of American wool has been nearly uniformly higher by from 8 to 11 cents per pound than that of like grades of foreign wools in similar condition and of the same shrinkage."

And see prices same Bulletin, p. 244.

The same fact is proved by comparing the foreign prices of wool, as given in Switzler's Wool Rep., 1887, p. 231, with Boston prices, on pages 228–231, and New York and Philadelphia prices, on page 109—these by way of illustration as to clothing wool. These tables show prices as follows:

	Foreign price per pound.	Boston prices.
	Cents.	*Cents.*
1882	22·4	39·2
1883	22·1	35·9
1884	22·5	37·8
1885	21·1	31·1
1886	18·1	32·2

The prices of wools from 1817 to 1885 are shown in Statement No. 17, of Quarterly Report No. 3, Series 1885–6, of the Bureau of Statistics. No. 4, 1886–7, p. 883, shows the price from 1877 to 1887. The New York prices for 1882, 1883, and 1884 are found more satisfactory in Statement No. 42, in regard to wool, etc., in the special report of the Bureau of Statistics, made by Joseph Nimmo, jr., Chief of Bureau, September 10, 1884, "on the operations of the tariff act of March 3, 1883, for the six months ending December 31, 1883."

And see Monthly Rep. Dept. Agriculture, May, 1892, p. 175, as to prices; see also table of prices, Springer Free Wool Rep., No. 501; 1st sess. 53d Cong., March 1, 1892, pp. 34, 39, 41.

[From the Wool Circular of Justice Bateman & Co., February 1, 1894.]

Importation of Colonial wools into Europe and America at various tariff periods between 1860 and 1893, with approximate value per bale.

Year.	Quantity.	Average value per bale in English money.
	Bales.	
1860	266,000	£25¼
1868	639,000	18¼
1869	657,000	17¾
1883	1,253,000	16¾
1890	1,699,000	14¾
1893	2,074,000	12¼

A decline of 51½ per cent in thirty-three years.

IV. *The prices of wool in England in 1873 and 1891.*

These, as stated by the Bradford Observer in 1891, were in 1873 and 1891 as follows:

	1873.	1891.
	d	*d.*
Port Phillip, fleece average	25	14¾
Port Phillip, grease, average	15½	10
Adelaide, grease, average	11¾	6¾
Cape Easton, average fleece	15½	8¾
Buenos Ayres, average, grease	7	5
Donskoi, average, white carding	10	7

(*See* as to this U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, p. 292.)

V. *Boston prices, 1868–1883.*

(*See* Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, pp. 83, 85.)

From House Ex. Doc., No. 71, Fifty-third Congress, second session. By Worthington C. Ford, Chief of the Bureau of Statistics Treasury Department.]

PRICE OF DOMESTIC WOOL IN BOSTON WOOL MARKET, YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1893.

VI.—Boston prices, June, 1892–1893, by Denny, Rice & Co.

	June, 1892.		August, 1892.		September, 1892.		October, 1892.		November, 1892.		December, 1892.	
	Cents.		*Cents.*		*Cents.*		*Cents.*		*Cents.*		*Cents.*	
Ohio, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia:												
XXX, and pick-lock	32	to 33	32	to 33	32	to 33	32	to 33	32	to 33	32	to 33
XX	28	29	28	29	28	28½	28	29	28	29	28½	29
X	27	27½	27	27½	26½	27	27	27½	27	27½	27½	28
No. 1	32½	33	32½	33	32	33	32½	33	32½	33	32½	33
No. 2	31	32	31	32	31	32	31½	32	31½	32	31½	32
Fine unwashed	19	20	19	20	19	20	19	20	19	20	20	21
Unmerchantable	22	22½	22	22½	22	22½	22	22½	22	22½	22	22½
Ohio combing No. 1 (⅝ and ½ blood)	35	36	35	36	35	36	35	36	35	36	35	36
Ohio combing No. 2 (¼ blood)	33	34	33	34	33	34	33	34	33	34	33	34
Ohio delaine	32	33	32	33	31	32	31	32	31	32	32	32½
Michigan, New York, and New England:												
X and above	25	26	25	26	25	25½	25	26	25	26	25½	26
No. 1	31	32	31	32	31	32	31½	32	31½	32	32	32½
No. 2	31	32	31	32	31	32	31	32	31	32	31	32
Fine unwashed	17	19	17	19	17	19	19	19	17	19	17	19
Unmerchantable	19	20½	19	20½	19	20	19	20	19	20	19	20
Michigan combing No. 1 (⅝ and ½ blood)	34	35	34	35	34	35	34	35	34	35	34	35
Michigan combing No. 2 (¼ blood)	32	33	32	33	32	33	32	33	32	33	32	33
Michigan delaine	28	29	28	29	28	28½	28	28½	28	28½	28½	29
Kentucky, Indiana, and Missouri:												
Combing, ⅜ blood	25	26	25	26	25	26	25	26	25	26	25	26
Combing, ¼ blood	25	25½	24½	25	24½	25	24½	25½	24½	25½	24½	25½
Combing braid	21	23	21	22	21	22	22	23	22	23	22	23
Clothing, ⅜ blood	24	25½	24	25½	24	25½	24½	25½	24½	25½	24½	25½
Clothing, ¼ blood	24	25	24	25	24	25	24½	25	24½	25	24½	25
Clothing, coarse	20	21	20	21	20	21	20	21	20	21	20	21
Texas (scoured basis):												
Spring, fine, 12 months	57	58	56	58	56	58	56	58	56	57	55	56
Spring, fine, 6 to 8 months	52	53	52	53	52	53	52	53	52	53	52	53
Spring, medium, 12 months	52	54	52	54	52	54	52	54	52	53	52	53
Spring, medium, 6 to 8 months	48	52	48	52	48	52	48	52	48	52	48	52
Fall, fine	Nominal.		Nominal.		48	50	48	52	48	52	48	52
Fall, medium	Nominal.		Nominal.		45	48	45	48	45	48	45	48
California (scoured basis):												
Spring, northern, free, 12 months	55	57	55	57	55	57	55	57	54	56	54	56
Spring, northern, free, 6 to 8 months	50	53	50	53	50	53	50	53	50	53	50	53
Southern, 12 months	52	55	52	55	52	55	52	55	52	55	52	55
Southern, 6 to 8 months	45	48	45	48	45	48	45	48	45	48	45	48
Fall, free	Nominal.		Nominal.		48	50	48	50	48	50	48	50
Fall, defective	30	40	30	40	30	40	30	40	30	40	30	40
Oregon (scoured basis):												
Eastern, No. 1	53	56	53	56	53	56	53	56	53	56	53	55
Eastern, No. 2	50	54	50	54	50	54	50	54	50	54	50	52
Valley, No. 1	53	56	53	56	53	56	53	56	53	56	53	56
Valley, No. 1	50	52	50	52	50	52	50	52	50	52	50	52
Montana (scoured basis):												
Fine	57	59	56	58	56	58	56	58	55	57	55	57
Fine medium	55	57	55	57	55	56	55	56	54	56	54	55
Medium	52	54	52	54	52	53	52	53	52	53	52	53
Wyoming and Utah (scoured basis):												
Fine	56	58	56	57	55	56	55	56	54	56	54	56
Fine medium	55	57	54	56	53	55	53	55	53	55	53	54
Medium	50	52	50	52	50	52	50	52	50	52	50	52
Colorado and New Mexico:												
Improved	17	20	17	20	17	20	17	20	17	20	17	20
Coarse and carpet	13	15	13	15	13	15	13	15	13	15	13	15
Georgia and Southern	24	26	24	26	24	26	25	26	25	25½	25	25½

VI.—Boston prices, June, 1892–1893, by Denny, Rice & Co.—**Continued.**

	January, 1893.	February, 1893.	March, 1893.	April, 1893.	May, 1893.	June, 1893.
	Cents.	*Cents.*	*Cents.*	*Cents.*	*Cents.*	*Cents.*
Ohio, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia:						
XXX. and pick-lock	32 to 33	33 to 34	34 to 35	34 to 35	Nominal.	Nominal.
XX	29 30	30 31	31 32	31 32	28 29	25 to 26
X	27½ 28	28 28½	28½ 29	28½ 29	26 27	23 25
No. 1	32½ 33	33 34	33½ 34½	33 34	30 31	27 28
No. 2	32 32½	32 32½	32 32½	32 32½	30	27 28
Fine unwashed	20 21	20 21½	20 22	20 22	19 20	17 18½
Unmerchantable	22 22½	22½ 23	22½ 23½	22 23	20 22	19 20
Ohio combing No. 1 (⅞ and ½ blood)	35 36	35 36	35 36	35 36	33 34	29 30
Ohio combing No. 2 (¼ blood)	33 34	33 34	33 34	33 34	30 31	27 28
Ohio delaine	32 32½	32 33½	32½ 33½	32½ 33½	30 32	27 29
Michigan, New York, and New England:						
X and above	26 26½	26½ 27	27 28½	27 28	26 27	24 25
No. 1	32 32½	32½ 33	33 33½	32 33	30 31	27 28
No. 2	31 32	32 32½	32 32½	31 32	29 30	26 27
Fine unwashed	17 19	18 20	19 20	19 20	18 19	16 18
Unmerchantable	19 21	21 22	22 22½	21 22	19 20	18 19
Michigan combing No. 1 (⅞ and ½ blood)	34 35	34 35	34 35	34 35	32 33	27 28
Michigan combing No. 2 (¼ blood)	32 33	32 33	32 33	32 33	30 32	27 27½
Michigan delaine	28½ 29	29 30	29 31	29 31	26 28	25 26
Kentucky, Indiana, and Missouri:						
Combing, ⅞ blood	25 27	26 27	26 27	26 27	22 24	21 21½
Combing, ½ blood	25 25½	25 26	25 26	25 26	21 23	21 22
Combing, braid	22 24	23 24	23 24	21 22	19 21	18½ 20
Clothing, ⅞ blood	25 25½	25 26	25 26	25 26	23 24	22 23
Clothing, ½ blood	24½ 25	24½ 25	24½ 25	24½ 25	23 24	22 23
Clothing, coarse	20 21	20 22	20 22	20 22	19 20	18 19
Texas (scoured basis):						
Spring, fine, 12 months	55 56	55 56	55 56	55 56	53 55	48 52
Spring, fine, 6 to 8 months	52 53	52 53	52 53	52 53	48 50	43 48
Spring, medium, 12 months	52 53	52 53	52 53	52 53	48 50	43 48
Spring, medium, 6 to 8 months	48 52	48 52	48 52	48 52	45 48	38 45
Fall, fine	48 52	48 52	48 52	48 52	45 48	No stock.
Fall, medium	45 48	45 48	45 48	45 48	40 45	No stock.
California (scoured basis):						
Spring, northern, free, 12 months	54 56	54 56	54 56	54 56	52 55	48 51
Spring, northern, free, 6 to 8 months	50 53	50 53	50 53	50 53	47 50	40 45
Southern, 12 months	52 55	52 55	52 55	52 55	50 52	45 50
Southern, 6 to 8 months	45 to 48	45 to 48	45 to 48	45 to 48	43 to 45	38 to 43
Fall, free	48 50	48 50	48 50	48 50	45 48	40 45
Fall, defective	30 40	30 40	30 40	30 40	30 35	28 33
Oregon (scoured basis):						
Eastern, No. 1	53 55	53 55	53 55	53 55	50 52	45 50
Eastern, No. 2	50 52	50 52	50 52	50 52	48 50	43 48
Valley, No. 1	53 56	53 56	53 56	53 55	50 52	45 50
Valley, No. 2	50 52	50 52	50 52	50 52	48 50	43 48
Montana (scoured basis):						
Fine	55 57	55 58	55 58	55 58	53 55	48 50
Fine medium	54 55	55 56	55 56	55 56	52 54	43 51
Medium	52 53	52 53	52 53	52 53	50 52	45 50
Wyoming and Utah (scoured basis):						
Fine	54 56	54 56	54 56	54 56	52 53	45 52
Fine medium	53 54	53 54	53 54	55 56	50 53	48 50
Medium	50 52	50 52	50 52	52 53	50 52	45 50
Colorado and New Mexico:						
Improved	17 20	17 20	17 20	17 20	16 18	15 17
Coarse and carpet	13 15	13 15	13 15	13 15	13 15	13 14
Georgia and Southern	25 25½	25 25½	25 25½	25 25½	23 24	20 21

See also prices in Part Sixth.

VII. *Prices March 1 to November 1, 1893.*

PART SIXTH.

See Senate Mis. Doc., No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, pp. 43, 85.

F.—Imports, Supply, Consumption, etc., of Wool in the United Kingdom.

Having thus shown the principal sources of supply from which the United States draws its imports of wools, it will be not without interest to show whence two other nations prominent in woolen manufactures obtain their supplies. I begin with United Kingdom.

In the five years, 1888 to 1892, the United Kingdom imported the following quantities of wool and yarn:

Calendar year.		Sheep and lambs.	Alpaca, Vicuna, and Llama.	Goats' hair or wool.	Yarn.
1888	Lbs..	634, 943, 685	4, 324, 290	21, 981, 538	17, 966, 619
	£....	25, 849, 918	180, 213	935, 924	2, 102, 223
1889	Lbs..	690, 011, 487	4, 891, 570	20, 991, 573	20, 487, 624
	£....	28, 361, 870	252, 867	994, 396	2, 443, 796
1890	Lbs..	629, 236, 209	3, 791, 922	15, 880, 314	16, 546, 462
	£....	26, 930, 764	227, 998	696, 738	1, 952, 595
1891	Lbs..	715, 470, 708	4, 543, 362	19, 520, 547	16, 138, 264
	£....	27. 856, 546	221, 496	881, 158	1, 881, 213
1892	Lbs..	738, 251, 203	4, 794, 901	19, 783, 263	16, 702, 606
	£....	26, 839, 319	220, 060	889, 286	1, 927, 256

Against these imports must be set the exports of wool. The quantities of foreign and colonial wool exported from England in the five years and the quantities of wool of domestic production, in both cases covered by a single classification "wool, sheep, and lambs."

Calendar year.		Domestic wools.	Colonial wools.	Year.		Domestic wools.	Colonial wools.
1888	Lbs..	23, 588, 200	338, 927, 669	1891	Lbs..	16, 727, 800	384, 103, 040
	£....	1, 016, 070	13, 786, 821		£....	704, 860	15, 785, 191
1889	Lbs..	21, 768, 400	363, 435, 451	1892	Lbs..	17, 928, 100	430, 105, 121
	£....	970, 750	15, 417, 521		£.....	681, 720	16, 802, 211
1890	Lbs..	19, 495, 100	340, 511, 516				
	£....	805, 296	14, 462, 643				

Thus, there has been a remarkable decrease in the quantity of domestic wool exported, a decrease of nearly 20 per cent, and an even greater decrease in the value, which has decreased nearly 32 per cent. This has resulted naturally, or from a decline in the sheep industry of

the country. The following table is taken from the agricultural returns of Great Britain:

Calendar year.	Sheep.	Lambs.	Total.
	Number.	*Number.*	*Number.*
1891	17,786,941	10,945,617	28,732,558
1892	17,957,049	10,777,655	28,734,704
1893	17,039,739	10,240,565	27,280,334

The decrease in sheep in 1893 was 5·1 per cent as compared with 1892, 4·2 per cent as compared with 1891; of lambs, 5 per cent, as compared with 1892, 6·4 per cent as compared with 1891, of total, 5·1 per cent compared with either year.

Consumption of wool in the United Kingdom, 1890–1892.

	1890.	1891.	1892.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
Domestic clip (estimated)	138,000,000	148,000,000	153,000,000
Imports, wool, alpaca, and mohair	650,000,000	740,000,000	762,000,000
Total	788,000,000	888,000,000	915,000,000
Total exports	360,000,000	401,000,000	448,000,000
Left for home consumption	428,000,000	487,000,000	467,000,000
Stocks in ports	62,000,000	53,000,000	40,000,000

The principal trade of Great Britain in wools is in sheep or lambs, wool, the greater part of which is obtained from her colonial possessions. Thus, in 1892, of a total import of 738,251,203 pounds, 635,841,992 pounds were obtained from British possessions. The commerce may be still further differentiated. Of the 635,841,982 pounds received from British possessions, 514,405,795, or 87 per cent, was obtained from Australasia; 82,071,288 pounds were supplied from the British possessions in South Africa; 63,028,792 from the Cape of Good Hope, and 19,042,496 pounds from Natal. The East Indies supplied less than 38,000,000 pounds, of which 34,335,181 pounds came from Bombay. Of the Australian governments two have shown remarkable progress in the exports of wool, New South Wales, and Queensland, as follows:

Year.	New South Wales.	Queensland.	Year.	New South Wales.	Queensland.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*		*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
1888	149,539,681	35,725,427	1891	165,465,000	50,592,000
1889	152,267,520	38,050,268	1892	181,836,921	69,863,100
1890	127,402,559	44,141,456			

As illustrating the fall in prices it may be stated that the value of the imports from New South Wales in 1888 and 1892 differed by only £140,000, while the quantity had increased by 32,200,000 pounds. The other governments of Australia have not shown the same elasticity of exports, and have even retrograded. West Australia declined from 7,141,109 pounds in 1888 to 6,420,836 in 1892. South Australia fluctuated from 40,120,813 pounds in 1888 to 35,625,588 in 1890, 49,221,000 in 1891, and 44,625,340 in 1892; Victoria from 106,581,056 in

1888 to 92,653,966 in 1891 and 99,785,836 in 1892. In each case wool is the staple export of these countries, as it is also of New Zealand, which has increased its exports to the United Kingdom from 84,238,152 in 1888 to 104,738,400 in 1892.

If we compare the imports of foreign wools by Great Britain with those of the United States we notice a difference in the sources of supply. The United States obtains a large quantity from China; Great Britain takes only 2,907,146 pounds from that country. Great Britain buys of South America about 13,000,000 pounds, or less than the United States takes from the Argentine Regublic alone. It is from the countries having connection with the Mediterranean that England obtains her chief imports, outside of the production of her own colonies; but even in this case the United States takes more from Russia than Great Britian does. The principal contributors to Great Britain's supply on the east are Turkey, 22,774,764 pounds; Russia, 24,403,157 pounds; France, 17,054,517 pounds, and Germany and Belgium, 5,370,000 pounds each. There is hardly a country in Europe of any size that does not pay an appreciable toll in wool in the English market, and this wide area of supply enables the English market to meet extraordinary demands upon her; makes it, in fact, the leading wool market of the world. I append two short tables which will illustrate in detail England's trade in other qualities of wool.

(See also E, Part Fifth, section 111, as to "importation of colonial wool into Europe and America, 1860–1893".)

Prices of raw wools in London market on December 31 of each year, 1887–1892. (a)

[Pence per pound.]

	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.
Australian:						
P. P., good average, greasy	10	10½	12	10	9	8½
P. P., good average, scoured combing	18	19	21	18	16½	15½
Sydney, average, greasy (short)	8	8½	10	8½	7½	7
Adelaide, average, greasy	6½	7½	9	7½	6¾	6
New Zealand, super, greasy	11	11½	12½	11	9	9
Crossbred, super, greasy (fine)	12½	12½	14½	13	12½	12
Crossbred, average, greasy (medium)	9½	9½	11	10	9½	9½
Cape, Eastern:						
Extra superior, snow-white	17½	17½	21	18	16½	15½
Average fleece	8½	9	11	8½	8	7¾
Buenos Ayres:						
Good average, greasy, combing (35 per cent)	6½	7¼	8¾	7	6	5¾
Average, greasy (30 per cent)	5¼	6	6¾	5¾	5	4¾
Peru: Middling	8	8	8½	8½	7¾	7¾
Donskoi: Average, white, carding	7	7	7½	7¼	7	6¾
East India: Pac Pathan, yellow	7¼	8	8¼	8¼	7¼	7
Lincoln hogs	10½	10¾	14	10¼	9¼	9½
Alpaca, Islay super fleece	12¾	11½	22	15	12½	14½
Mohair, Turkish, fair average	13½	12¾	19	14	12¾	14½

a Helmuth, Schwartze & Co.

G.—PART SEVENTH, WOOL INDUSTRY IN FRANCE.

Wools in the French market have reflected the general situation just described in the English and American markets. The permanent commission on tariff values in 1892 say:

In 1891 we established a fall in price of about 13 per cent on the average price of 1890, already so low, and it seemed as if the price could not fall lower, and yet if we compare the mean prices for the two years, 1891 and 1892, we find that Australian wool has fallen by 15·5 per cent, the wools of the River Plate, Montevideo, by 7·5 per cent. The French wools by 12 to 15 per cent, according to the quality. The bottom has dropped out of the market. (C'est un véritable effondrement des cours.)

In connection with prices on the French market may be noted one fact, or statement, made by this commission, the application of which is not confined to conditions in France. Commenting upon the fact that wools from Buenos Ayres ruled in the markets at about the same price a few years ago as Australian wools, it says:

Taking as a type a first quality of French wool, the price of which combed was 5 francs, the combed wool of Australia was 4 francs 75 centimes and a prime quality of Buenos Ayres was 4·50 francs. To-day these proportions are reversed. The prime quality of Buenos Ayres has attained a value of a similar grade of Australian and the price of the first quality of French wool has often fallen below the price of the other two kinds of wool. The reasons for this are various. It may be said in a general way that the wool of the River Plate has greatly improved within a few years. The sheep raisers of these countries have purchased at good prices breeders of the Merino sheep to improve their flocks, and these selections have become evident in the production and improvement of the wool. In France, on the other hand, as almost everywhere through Europe, wool has been neglected, and the efforts of raisers have been devoted to the production of meat and increase in weight.

The types of wool to be compared are no longer the same. The grade of the River Plate wool has become superior and the wool of France inferior to what they were formerly. As to the leveling of the prices of River Plate and Australian wools, this is attributed generally to the fact that the River Plate wools are better adapted to the manufacture of such woolens as have been in favor during the last few years.

There should also be added the influence already mentioned of a very largely increased production in Australian wools, which depressed prices of those wools in the world's markets, and must, therefore, have exerted a depressing effect on prices of those wools. The general course of prices of River Plate and Australian wools (combed) in the French market may be seen from the following table:

	River Plate (tram 78 mm.)		Australian (tram 86 mm.).	
	1892.	1891.	1892.	1891.
	Francs.	*Francs.*	*Francs.*	*Francs.*
January	4.70	5.75	4.80	6.10
February	4.50	5.60	4.70	5.90
March	4.40	5.50	4.60	5.85
April	5.10	5.60	5.25	5.85
May	4.90	5.50	4.90	5.85
June	4.70	5.50	4.90	5.70
July	4.70	5.30	4.70	5.60
August	4.80	5.25	4.85	5.40
September	4.80	5.15	4.85	5.35
October	4.70	5.10	4.80	5.25
November	4.75	5.00	4.85	5.15
December	4.65	4.80	4.75	4.90
Average	4.72	5.33	4.83	5.57
Fall in 1892	0.61	.....	0.74	.....
Fall per cent	11.24	.....	13.30	.....
Average fall in 1892, per cent	12.21	.....	12.27	.....

Domestic clip of wool in France.

The latest available returns of the sheep industry in France are those for 1891, which may be taken as a general gauge of the production of wool in 1892.

	Animals.	Average weight of a fleece.	Wool in the grease.
	Number.	*Kilos.*	*Kilos.*
Sheep—rams, ewes	13,198,000	2.650	34,974,700
Lambs over 6 months	6,216,000	0.750	4,662,000
Lambs under 6 months	2,380,000	.....	.....
Total	21,794,000	.....	39,636,700
Wools obtained from dressed skins	.....	.....	9,169,000
Total of clip 1891	.....	.....	48,805,700
Return of 1890	.....	.....	48,621,300

While we have seen that Great Britain uses, in her woolen industry, less than one-half of the total quantity of wool imported, France, on the other hand, consumes nearly nine-tenths of her imports of wool. In 1892 the quantity of wool imported was 203,862,629 kilos. The quantity exported was 21,753,217 kilos, leaving a net import of 182,109,412 kilos as compared with a net import of 169,291,000 kilos in 1891 and 150,380,000 kilos in 1890. To this should be added the wool obtained from imported skins and the shearing of sheep imported alive and the domestic wool clip, making the total supply for French manufactures 248,256,000 kilos as against 238,932,000 kilos in 1891 and 220,000,000 kilos in 1890. On this showing France consumes one-quarter of the entire wool supply and about one-half of the wool used in European countries, giving her the first rank in the countries manufacturing wool. The increase, quantitatively, in the wool consumed in manufacture was greater in Germany than in France, and French exporters, while setting aside any fear of active competition on the part of England or the United States, shielded principally by their specialties, expressed their fear of serious competition on the side of Germany. While the consumption of France in 1892 was 10,000,000 kilos greater than in 1891, it was estimated that the increase in Germany was 15,000,000 kilos. Of the wool used in the French industry in 1892 one-fith was of native origin, one-third of Australian, and more than two-fifths of the River Plate. The remarkable feature in this showing is the enormous strides in the imports of wool from Australia in the last three years:

	Kilos.
1890	1,940,331
1891	11,099,101
1892	24,136,501

H.—PART EIGHTH.

CONSUMPTION OF WOOL, 1840-1890 AND SINCE, IN UNITED STATES.

Comparative per capita consumption of wools in the United States for specified years.

Year.	Imports of wool.	Home products of wool preceding year.	Total imports and home production.	Imports of wool in manufactured goods.	Total consumption.	Per capita consumption of raw wool.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
1840	9,898,740	35,802,114	45,700,854	31,095,276	76,796,130	4·49
1850	18,695,294	52,516,969	71,212,263	58,178,613	129,390,876	5·58
1860	26,282,955	60,264,913	86,547,858	128,497,923	215,045,791	6·84
1870	38,634,068	162,000,000	200,634,068	105,289,422	305,923,489	7·48
1880	99,372,440	232,500,000	331,872,440	95,503,641	427,376,081	8·52
1890	109,902,105	276,000,000	385,902,105	162,496,269	548,398,374	9·00
1891	119,390,280	285,000,000	404,390,280	.....	.....	.....

The Bulletin of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, March, 1892, p. 113, says that in 1860 our woolen manufacturers consumed but 85,334,896 pounds greasy wool, a per capita of 2·7 pounds; in 1890 the consumption had grown to 434,000,000, a per capita of 7 pounds.

The imports of wool in manufactured goods imported is on the estimate of 3 pounds of wool in $1 in value of goods imported.

[From the wool circular of Justice Bateman & Co., February 1, 1894.]

THE CONSUMPTION OF WOOL IN THE UNITED STATES.

The total supply of raw wool for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1893, was about 532,000,000 pounds in addition to the importation of about $38,000,000 worth of imported cloth at the foreign value. It is estimated that the wool required to produce these goods was over 3 pounds of unwashed wool per dollar's worth of goods. This would therefore make a total consumption by the American people of nearly 650,000,000 pounds of raw wool, equal to about 27 per cent of the world's supply. As the American people are only 5 per cent of the world's population, and as they use 27 per cent of the world's production of wool, the per capita consumption is 9¾ pounds, which is the largest by any nation in the world. It is therefore not surprising that foreigners are jubilant over the prospect of being able to secure a greater share of the United States market, which advocates of the Wilson bill declare will be the result of its becoming a law, depriving the American producer of just so much of the American market as this bill proposes to give to the foreigner; for whatever additional employment is thus given to the foreigner, to that extent is the amount of work for our own people lessened.

In 1860 the British manufacture was consuming 300,000,000 pounds of wool annually; in 1890 less than 470,000,000, or but 8 per cent more than ours.

The Monthly Report, No. 95, May, 1892, of the Department of Agriculture, says:

The following table shows the net imports and home production of the four *principal* manufacturing countries, the former from official figures for 1890, the

latter from estimates in the wool book of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers:

Country.	Imports.	Exports.	Net imports.	Domestic production.	Supply.
	Pounds.	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*	*Pounds.*
France	371, 722, 377	39, 575, 579	332, 146, 798	124, 803, 000	456, 949, 798
United Kingdom	629, 236, 219	360, 006, 616	269, 229, 603	147, 475, 000	416, 704, 603
United States	129, 303, 648	2, 930, 045	126, 373, 603	285, 000, 000	411, 373, 603
Germany	283, 542, 424	19, 872, 264	263, 670, 160	54, 894, 000	318, 564, 160

While the United Kingdom imports more than a fourth of the world's wool, in addition to domestic product, its exports amount to as much as the German consumption. The table shows that our net supply is very close to that of the United Kingdom. There is little doubt, if our domestic product is permitted to increase, that the United States will soon be the first nation of the world in wool manufacture, as it is first by long odds in the use of wool by its people.

PART NINTH.

THE ACCURACY OF THE STATISTICS IN THE U. S. SENATE MISCELLANEOUS DOCUMENTS NUMBERED 35 AND 77, FIFTY-THIRD CONGRESS, SECOND SESSION, VINDICATED.

[From the Worcester (Mass.) Daily Spy, March 11, 1894.]

The following is explanatory of U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session:

OUR WOOL INDUSTRY—MAGNITUDE AND PROFIT OF WESTERN SHEEP-RAISING—CRITICISM OF A RECENT ARTICLE IN THE SPY AND A REPLY BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL WOOLGROWER'S ASSOCIATION.

To the Editor of the Spy:

In an editorial you gave the items contained in a memorial to Congress from the flockmasters, or sheep-raisers, West. The sums were so large that some of your readers could hardly grasp them, and in order in reducing them to the caliber of my cranium it would almost seem as though I had made some error in my calculation.

I inclose the findings and ask you to kindly point out the errors, if there are any.

Number of flockmasters, 1,000,000; number of sheep, 45,000,000; average for each flock, 45 sheep. Rather a small flock.

Again, number of sheep, 45 000,000; whole value of sheep, $500,000,000; average cost per herd nearly $11.12. Rather high price on an average.

Again, whole product of sheep, $110,000,000; deduct for labor, $85,000,000; net product, $25,000,000; number of flockmasters 1,000,000; average net product for each owner, $25.

Again, number of sheep, 45,000,000; amount paid for labor, $85,000,000; average cost of labor for single sheep, $1.88; number of sheep in each flock, 45; net amount of labor for each flock, $84.60.

Again, net increase on sheep, $25,000,000; number of flockmasters, 1,000,000; average for each flockmaster, $25, or nearly 6¾ cents per day. If the figures are really correct, it is difficult to see how you class this as a "great industry" so far as the net profits are concerned. Of course, I can not vouch for the accuracy of the numerical items.

But as a class industry that on an average does not bring to the investor but 6¾ cents per day on an investment of nearly $500 can hardly be called a success, especially when you take into consideration that nothing has been charged up for pasturage, hay, oats and corn to grow the sheep, and the same is true as to the interest on the money, etc.

And what is more strange than all is that with a high protective tariff, that which conduces to enhance values, so little is realized as net gain. You often speak of the pauper labor of Europe, and I wonder if they have an industry that pays less.

If the figures are correct, is it not fair to assume that the memorial must presume on the ignorance of Congress, as well as on the ignorance of the people?

READER OF SPY.

A REPLY BY HON. WILLIAM LAWRENCE.

BELLEFONTAINE, OHIO, *February 20, 1894.*

To the Editor of the Worcester Spy:

I have received the communication addressed to the Spy, dated 15th instant, in which the writer criticizes the "Memorial of the National Woolgrowers' Association to the Senate," presented in that body 8th instant, against free wool. A brief answer seems proper:

I. The first point of his criticism is that sheep husbandry, "so far as the net profits are concerned," is not a "great industry." The question of "net profits" does not necessarily measure the magnitude of an industry. The net profits of the farmers of the United States during this year of threatened free trade are not great, but their industries are, notwithstanding, of large magnitude. I may say for the benefit of your readers that the memorial, with its appendices, is published as Senate Miscel-

laneous Document No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session, containing 127 pages, of which the memorial proper only covers eight pages. All this is supplemental to Senate Miscellaneous Document No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, containing 388 pages. These can be procured from the members of the Senate Finance Committee. These documents show from official statistics that in the year 1892 the products of our mines of gold and silver in the United States was in value $83,750,000. (See Doc. No. 35, p. 5.) Estimating the product of our wool, mutton, and pelts at $110,000,000, sheep husbandry yielded in 1892 $26,250,000 more wealth than these mines. Other comparisons might be made, but this shows the magnitude of sheep husbandry.

II. Your correspondent is in error in estimating the profits of sheep husbandry, With free wool our American sheep husbandry will not be profitable—in fact, can not be made to pay expenses, and so will be substantially destroyed. But with "full and adequate protection," promised by the Republican national platform of 1888. reaffirmed in 1892, it will be made fairly remunerative. The memorial referred to says:

"The (National Woolgrowers') Association represents more than a million flock masters, owning about 45,000,000 sheep, with an invested capital of the aggregate value, under normal conditions, of $500,000,000, expending annually for labor $85,000,000 besides their own services, with an annual output in wool, pelts, and mutton of more than $110,000,000."

The word "besides" should be read "including," as may be seen from page 22 of the document No. 77, which gives details of capital, labor cost, and profits of 45,000,000 sheep in 1892. The total labor cost, including value of services of flock masters, is put at $85,000,000; the total product for wool, mutton, sheep, and pelts at $110,000,000. This leaves for income over and above labor cost $25,000,000, which is 5 per cent on the money invested of $500,000,000. This, it is true, is not a large profit, but it is more than the average net profit on the capital invested by other farmers generally, after paying them for their labor. And besides, I may add, there is a profit, not in money, but in fertility to lands from sheep husbandry, worth more than 1 per cent on the money invested. And with "adequate protection" the profits of sheep husbandry would, as they should, be increased. By reason of changed conditions the McKinley act of 1890 is not now adequately protective. It should be understood that the $85,000,000 for services includes the labor of making and feeding the hay, oats, and corn for sheep. If flock masters, or any other farmers, can get fair compensation for their services—for all their labors—and a fair percentage of profit on their capital invested, they will be satisfied.

Thus you see your "Reader of Spy" has not figured accurately. This is perhaps not surprising when in his communication he puts down: "Whole value of sheep (45,000,000), $500,000,000. Average cost per head, nearly $11.12. Rather high price on the average."

The memorial does not say the 45,000,000 sheep were worth $500,000,000, but it does refer to the "million flock masters owning now about 45,000,000 sheep, with an invested capital of the aggregate value, under normal conditions, of $500,000,000."

The capital in sheep husbandry includes capital in sheep in 1892, $120,000,000, capital in farms and barns for sheep, estimated at $400,000,000, etc. If your critic would read the documents to which reference has been made he would possibly learn some things which may not have occurred to him or been called to his attention.

III. I now take occasion to say what I did not say in either of the documents mentioned, except as by inference from the wrong word "besides," that, with "adequate protection" assured for five years, sheep husbandry would be enlarged to include 110,000,000 sheep, producing all the wools of every kind needed for consumption in the United States, and then labor would receive double the amount above stated. In fact, wool in the older States is from 80 to 90 per cent all labor. Labor makes the grass and hay and grain that make the sheep, wool, and mutton.

Nor is this all. By the needed increase of sheep labor would receive annually probably $40,000,000 additional to clear and fence lands, build sheep barns, ship increased wool and mutton to market, etc., and this added demand for labor would indefinitely go on increasing so long as our population shall increase, unless Congress should be guilty of the insane and cruel folly of destroying sheep husbandry by free wool, thus sending our gold to enrich foreign woolgrowers, create financial panics here, as in 1893, to the ruin not only of woolgrowers but of too many of the people.

IV. Finally, your correspondent, by inference, as I suppose, seems to doubt whether there are a million flockmasters. I have an official statement from the Department of Agriculture, compiled from the census of 1880, showing that there were then in the United States over a million flockmasters, besides the owners of sheep ranches. The latter *have increased* since 1880.

Respectfully, etc.,

WILLIAM LAWRENCE,
President of the National Woolgrowers' Association.

CHAPTER THIRD.

By WILLIAM LAWRENCE, *President of the National Woolgrowers' Association, March, 1894.*

WOOL TARIFF DUTIES AS AFFECTED:
(1) By TIME AND (2) AS AFFECTED BY (*a*) PREEXISTING (*b*), PRESENT, AND (*c*) PROSPECTIVE CONDITIONS.
STISTISTICAL ARGUMENT THAT—
I. INADEQUATE DUTIES RUIN SHEEP HUSBANDRY.
II. ADEQUATELY PROTECTIVE DUTIES ENCOURAGE AND INCREASE SHEEP HUSBANDRY.
THESE POSITIONS ILLUSTRATED BY FOUR TARIFF PERIODS:
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1. *The rates of duties under the act of 1867.*
2. *Statistics showing increase in sheep and wool product.*
   a Increase in weight of fleece.
3. *If this act had continued, American sheep would have been in 1895 over 600,000,000, producing annually over 650,000,000 of wool—all needed for our people.*
   a Illustrated by a diagram.
   b Democratic evidence that the act was beneficial.
4. *The act of 1867 gave prosperity notwithstanding adverse abnormal conditions.*
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V. THE THIRD PERIOD—*Under the inadequate tariff of* MARCH 3, 1883 TO 1890.

1. *The rates of wool duties under the act of March 3, 1883.*
2. *Causes operating to injure the wool industry.*
   A. The reduction of duties.
   B. The election of Mr. Cleveland as President in 1884.
   C. The recommendation of the Secretary of the Treasury, December 6, 1886, for free wool.
   D. The President's free wool message, December 6, 1887.
   E. The passage of the Mills free wool bill by the House in 1888.
   F. The passage of the Springer free wool bill in the House, April 7, 1892.
3. *The beneficial effect of the election of Gen. Harrison as President in 1888.*
4. *Statistics of the decline of sheep husbandry under the act of 1883.*

VI. THE FOURTH PERIOD—SHEEP HUSBANDRY UNDER THE PROTECTIVE MCKINLEY ACT OF OCTOBER 1, 1890.

1. *Time required for a tariff law to produce its intended effect.*
   a. Especially following a period of threatened free wool.
2. *Beneficial effect of the McKinley act.*
3. *Beneficial effect of the election of 1888, even in advance of the actual passage of the McKinley bill.*
4. *Statistics of the increase of sheep husbandry under the McKinley act.*
5. *This act if improved and continued would soon increase our sheep sufficiently to supply all needed wools.*
6. *Another phase of the* FOURTH *or McKinley* PERIOD.
   a The injury to sheep husbandry by PROSPECTIVE CONDITIONS—*the threat of free wool.*
   b Threat of low tariff caused financial panic of 1893.
   c The effect of financial panic in reducing the price of wool.
   d Threat of free wool the chief cause of the low price of wools.
   e Statistics of the decline of sheep husbandry from the threat of free wool.

VII. BENEFITS OF THE MCKINLEY LAWS TO WOOL GROWERS, BY PROVISIONS IN ADDITION TO THOSE FOR AN INCREASE OF DUTIES.

1. *Two McKinley acts—the* ADMINISTRATIVE *and the* TARIFF ACT.
2. *Four benefits of these acts pointed out in the annual address of William Lawrence, president of the Ohio Wool Growers' Association, at Columbus, January 12, 1892:*
   a The increase of wool duties.
   b The increase of duties on WOOL WASTES, SHODDY, CAMEL'S HAIR, and *all* GOAT HAIR.
   c The increase of duties on woolen goods.
   d The "administrative law" to prevent frauds.

VIII. PROTECTION PROTECTS.

1. *Demonstrated by statistics already given.*
2. *Theodore Justice gives facts in a letter to the Wheeling Intelligencer.*
3. *S. N. D. North's answer to Hon. William M. Springer.*
4. Evidence and argument from the American Economist of February 16, 1894.

The propositions stated at the head of this chapter have been argued at some length in documents printed by order of the Senate. (See U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, pp. 242–301, U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session, pp.—

By way of supplement to those the following is presented as a more distinctive

STATISTICAL ARGUMENT.

I. STATISTICS ONE OF THE EVIDENCES OF THE EFFECT OF A WOOL TARIFF.

1. *The subject discussed.*

One of the *evidences* of the *effect* of a wool tariff, whether adequate or inadequate, will be found in the *statistics* of *sheep*, and *wool production.*

The *real effect* requires TIME to furnish the evidence of what it may be. But *time* and *statistics* ALONE, for any specific or limited period do not *always* furnish evidence of the wisdom and justice of protective duties, or the want of either.

2. *Abnormal conditions may for a time control the effect of a tariff.*

A low duty on wool may under certain abnormal conditions in this country, be protective and encourage sheep husbandry. Thus it is said that the tariff of 1832, known as "the compromise tariff," was abundantly protective for the first five years, which were marked by general prosperity. (Treasury Department Wool Report, 1888, p. lviii.)

So a *high duty* under other *abnormal conditions* may *for a brief time* fail to encourage or increase sheep husbandry. (Treasury Department Wool Report, 1888, p. lx.)

But abnormal conditions do not furnish the *general rule*, but, like other "*exceptions*, prove the general rule." (Treasury Department Wool Report, 1888, p. lxii.)

3. And the general rule beyond all question is THAT ADEQUATE PROTECTION ENCOURAGES AND INCREASES, INADEQUATE PROTECTION DESTROYS, which will be hereafter demonstrated.

These propositions have all been illustrated in the history of sheep husbandry and wool tariffs in the United States.

II. FOUR PERIODS OF SHEEP HUSBANDRY, AS AFFECTED BY WOOL TARIFFS, AND THE RESULT.

An eminent wool dealer, Theodore Justice, for the purpose of illustrating the effect of adequate or partially adequate protective wool tariffs, and those not so, has classified the number of sheep and wool product into PERIODS.

Adopting his plan and preceding his periods with a *prior one*, they may be made into four classes or periods:

FIRST. *Under the Walker tariff, 1846, with a "tariff for revenue only;"*

SECOND. *Under the protective wool tariff act of March 2, 1867, the best law yet enacted on the subject;*

THIRD. *The reduced inadequately protective wool tariff of the act of March 3, 1883; and,*

FOURTH. *The improved but still inadequate McKinley act of October 1, 1890.*

III.

THE FIRST PERIOD—REVENUE TARIFF UNDER THE WALKER LOW TARIFF OF 1846.

1. *Some preliminary facts—Statistics 1840–1894.*

The effect of our wool tariffs from that of 1846 to January, 1894, and the effect of contemporary conditions may be seen from the statistics of the number of sheep and of wool product, as follows:

Years.	Number of sheep.	Pounds of wool produced.
1840	19,311,374	35,802,114
1850*	21,723,220	52,516,959
1860*	22,471,275	60,264,913
1870*	28,477,591	100,102,387
1880	40,765,900	240,681,751
1884	50,626,626	308,000,000
1890	44,336,072	309,474,856
1893	47,273,553	364,156,666
1894	45,048,017	.....

*The same figures for 1850, 1860, and 1870 appear in the Report of 1887 on Wool, p. 163, by the chief of the Bureau of Statistics, U. S. Treasury Department. They are also adopted by Edward Young, PH. D., formerly chief of the Bureau of Statistics, in the May, 1881, number of America—a New York tariff periodical. The Department of Agriculture estimated the sheep, 1870, at 40,853,000, with wool clip 162,000,000 pounds. The number of sheep for other years are as reported by the Department of Agriculture.

2. *From the inadequate tariff of 1846 to the protective act of March 2, 1867, sheep husbandry was not prosperous, although the conditions in this country were of the most favorable character to aid it.*

Assuming this to be true, it follows that *adequately protective duties* are essential to the prosperity of sheep husbandry in the United States. And this will be demonstrated.

The tariff of 1846, known as "the Walker" revenue only "tariff," which was wholly inadequate on wools, was only 30 *per cent ad valorem*, reduced in 1857 to 24 *per cent.* The result was that the increase in the *number of sheep* in the decade from 1850 to 1860 was only 748,055, equivalent to 3½ per cent. And the increase in *wool* was only 7,747,954 pounds; and all this under the most *favorable conditions* for sheep husbandry. Some of these conditions will be named:

3. *Favorable conditions.*

a. The war of the Rebellion commenced in April, 1861, and continued until 1865.

This made an immense demand for wool and woolen goods, and led to the inadequate wool tariff acts of 1861 and 1864.

Notwithstanding these abnormal conditions, favorable to sheep husbandry, especially after April, 1861, the increase in sheep from 1840 to 1870, a period of 30 years, was only 9,166,217, which did not at all keep pace with the increase of population and demand for wool.

And from 1860 to 1870, with all the war demand and duties *somewhat* but still *inadequately protective*, by the acts of 1861 and 1864, the increase in sheep, *according to the census* returns, was from 22,471,275 *in 1860, to 28,477,591 in 1870,* an increase of only 6,006,316.

b. The foreign wool production and hence competition was then comparatively limited.

This may be seen in the statistics of the world's production of wools from 1810 to 1890 in the chapter of statistics. This was favorable to domestic sheep husbandry, but still it did not increase w ith the demands of our population.

c. Favorable conditions resulting from the protective tariff of 1842.

Under the wise protective tariff of 1842 there was fostered a spirit of enterprise which—as has been truly said—lasted a long time, like the momentum of a heavy train. Many new manufacturing plants were established which their owners struggled to use and make profitable. We had just entered upon a great extension of the railroad system, and this opened up vast fertile regions and gave access to rich mines and primeval forests. There was, indeed, a large measure of prosperity for *some industries*, not *because of* the "Walker tariff," *but in spite of it.* This has been well shown with the ABNORMAL CAUSES thereof:

d. Blaine's review of conditions.

There was an extraordinary series of incidents which are thus described by Hon. James G. Blaine:

Coeval with President Polk's approval of the tariff bill came the declaration of war with Mexico. That led to a demand for more than 100,000 men for enlistment and camp followers, and caused an outlay of $150,000,000 beyond the ordinary expenditures of government within the ensuing two years. Before the great stimulus given to all departments of trade by these large disbursements began to lessen, a great famine occurred in Ireland. That led to an altogether unprecedented export of breadstuffs, and that, of course, brought large shipments of money from Europe. Before the effect produced on our trade by the famine had ceased the European revolutions of 1848 began, and trade and manufactures over the whole continent from Madrid to St. Petersburg were disturbed, and, in many cases, thrown into hopeless confusion and panic. This stopped importations and gave to the American manufacturer a far larger field than he would have had if a normal condition of business had existed in Europe. While these causes were in full operation and were producing a prodigious effect upon our prosperity, the whole country was electrified at the close of the year 1848 by the tidings that gold had been discovered in California, which we had acquired only a few months before from Mexico. The precious metal flowed to us in rich streams from the Pacific slope for the next six years and opened avenues of trade unknown before.

It was a historic epoch in the advancement of the country, and when, at the beginning of 1854 the output of gold showed signs of decline, a European war supplied fresh stimulus to the trade of the United States. The three leading powers of Europe, as powers were then reckoned, England, France and Russia, engaged in a giants' contest on the shores of the Black Sea, and the confusion which resulted throughout Europe for the next two and a half years afforded a rich harvest for the United States. Peace came in 1856. The spindles and wheels and looms, the forges and factories and furnaces of Great Britain and France were set going with renewed energy. The seas were once more unvexed, and Russia poured forth her grain in the markets of western Europe to compete with the shipments from America.

We were no longer sustained by some extraordinary accident like war, or famine, or revolution abroad, or the discovery of vast deposits of the precious metal at home. I need not tell the result. The panic of 1857 came upon the country with crushing and disastrous effect.

And that was the downfall of the famous tariff of 1846. When left to stand alone it stood just one year. The people had not sufficiently heeded the tremendous influences of the accidental causes I have cited, and mistakenly believed that the ten years of prosperity were due to a low revenue tariff.

(See U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, p. 209.

e. Final result—ruin.

But the *final*, the *inevitable*, the *ruinous* effects of *low* duties came.

(1) In 1857, President Buchanan, in his message of December 8, said:

In the midst of unsurpassed plenty in all the productions and in all the elements of national wealth, we find our manufactures suspended, our public works retarded, our private enterprises of different kinds abandoned, and thousands of useful laborers thrown out of employment and reduced to want.

(2) Peter Cooper, a great business man, philanthropist, and Democrat, who lived through those times and had also experienced two other periods of depression caused by tariffs dictated by the Southern wing of his party, thus describes the result:

Once more, in 1846, however, did the serpent—properly represented by British Free Traders—make his way into Paradise, and now a dozen years elapsed, in the course of which, notwithstanding the discovery of California mines, money commanded a rate of interest higher, as I believe, than has ever been known in the country for so long a period of time. British iron and cloth came in and gold went out, and with each successive day the dependence of our farmers on foreign markets became more complete. With 1857 came the culmination of the system, merchants and manufacturers being ruined, banks being compelled to suspend payment, and the Treasury being reduced to a condition of bankruptcy nearly approaching that which had existed at the close of the free-trade periods commencing in 1817 and 1834. In the three years that followed labor was everywhere in excess; wages were low; immigration fell below the point at which it had stood twenty years before; the home market for food diminished, and the foreign one proved so utterly worthless that the whole export to all the manufacturing nations of Europe, as I have already stated, amounted to but little more than $10,000,000.

(3) In 1852 President Fillmore, in a message to Congress pointed out the following evils resulting from it:

The first is the effect of large importations of foreign goods upon our currency. *Most of the gold of California, as fast as it is coined, finds its way directly to Europe in payment for goods purchased.* In the second place, as our manufacturing establishments are broken down by competition with foreigners, the capital invested in them is lost, thousands of honest and industrious citizens are thrown out of employment, and the farmer to that extent is deprived of a home market for the sale of his surplus produce. In the third place, the destruction of our manufacturers leaves the foreigner without competition in our market, and he consequently raises the price of the articles sent here for sale, as is now seen in the increased cost of iron imported from England.

[In the volume of Commerce and Navigation for the fiscal year 1893, page CLX, the table of exports of gold in excess of imports is shown to be from 1845 to 1861, inclusive, the enormous sum of $490,217,069. The product of gold in the United States from 1845 to 1861 was $697,036,769. (See Report Director of the Mint for 1892, p. 163.) With adequate protection during all our history, this country would now have more gold and more wealth than any other nation of the world.—W. L.]

(4) In 1855 public soup houses were opened by charity in New York and other cities to keep the unemployed from starving, and Horace Greeley plainly stated the situation and the cause in the following language:

The making of roads is stopped, factories are closed, and houses and ships are no longer being built. Factory hands, roadmakers, carpenters, bricklayers, and laborers are idle, and paralysis is rapidly embracing every pursuit in the country. THE CAUSE OF ALL THIS STOPPAGE OF CIRCULATION IS TO BE FOUND IN THE STEADY OUTFLOW OF GOLD TO PAY FOREIGN LABORERS FOR THE CLOTH, THE SHOES, THE IRON, AND THE OTHER THINGS THAT COULD BE PRODUCED BY AMERICAN LABOR, BUT WHICH CAN NOT BE SO PRODUCED UNDER OUR PRESENT REVENUE SYSTEM.

f. Albert Clarke on the deceptive appearance of prosperity.

Hon. Albert Clarke, in a very able and unanswerable article, from which much of the foregoing is taken, in further accounting for the *apparent* and *temporary prosperity* for *some branches* of industry, under the abnormally favorable conditions existing during the operation of "The Walker Tariff," shows how free traders erred in estimating prosperity—

By ingeniously delusive statements in *comparing decades by percentages* that are not calculated from a *common base*. The error of this method may be shown thus: If a man who has $1 to-day gains another to-morrow, his wealth has increased 100 per cent; but if he is worth $1,000 the next day and on the next gains $900, his wealth has increased, in the same length of time as before, only 90 per cent. Thus, by omitting the actual figures of growth and calculating the percentages from two different bases, the free-trade writers have actually made $1 look larger than $900.

(1) *Rhode Island woolen manufactures in proof.*

I will demonstrate this by citing the woolen manufactures of Rhode Island. Stated in percentages, the growth from 1850 to 1860 was 187 per cent; next decade 78, next 116, and next 32; which, according to your method, would indicate to a casual reader that the growth was greater during the Walker decade. But here are the actual figures of the value of the product: 1850, $2,400,000; 1860, $6,900,000; 1870, $12,300,000; 1880, $26,600,000; and 1890, $35,200,000. Thus, after thirty years of protection, the product was more than five times as great as it was after ten years of Walker tariff. Measured by the population of the State, it was $40 per capita in 1860 and $102 in 1890. The growth from 1850 to 1860 was only 4½ millions, but from 1880 to 1890 it was 13·6 millions. Now, which do you prefer, the percentage or the fact; the shadow or the substance; the 10 pounds of additional tissue that convert a boy into a youth, or the 50 pounds extra that change a youth into a man?

Two decades, whole country.

What is true of that one industry in Rhode Island is true in varying degrees of others and of the whole country. Leaving out the war and inflation period and comparing the normal decades 1850 to 1860 and 1870 to 1880, we find that the gain in the annual production of all our manufactures in the former period was $866,684,000, and in the latter it was $2,176,000,000, which is equal to 150 per cent in favor of the protection decade.

(2) *All factors must be considered.*

The bane of economic discussion is not altogether in erroneous methods of comparison like that which I have exposed, but it is more frequently in *omitting some of the factors which produce the result.* For example, we may have a good currency and a poor tariff and prosper, or we may have a good tariff and a poor currency and not prosper; but the proof is abundant and overwhelming that when other conditions are alike favorable, the protective policy favors general prosperity vastly more than any non-protective policy ever has or can. For it not only keeps money at home, diversifies industries, and gives general employment and high wages to labor, but it also promotes a freer exchange of necessary imports and exports than does the revenue tariff of Great Britain or the bungling Walker or Wilson adjustments of duties.

[Boston Home Market Bulletin, March 1, 1894.]

g.—Every free-trade period ended in ruin.

It is a historic fact, as lamentable as it is true, that—

Every period of inadequate tariff has resulted in depressing the wool industry.

In the Special Report on the Sheep Industry of the United States by the Department of Agriculture, 1892, p. 240, the effect of the low-wool tariff of 1846 is thus stated:

The tariff of 1846 was ruinous to the fine-wool industry of the United States. At *that date* many factories were producing broadcloth equal in quality to any made

rmany and Great Britain. Large quantities of fine Saxony and Spanish merino , equal in many respects to that produced in Saxony, France, or Spain, was l in Massachusetts and adjoining States, and found a ready market at fairly nerative prices. But when that tariff went into operation the American man- urer could not compete with the cheap labor and vast capital of the Old World; quently, the manufacture of broadcloth was abandoned and so absolutely that 0 there was scarcely a loom in the United States, making that kind of goods. machinery released from making broadcloth was employed in fabricating m and coarse fancy cassimeres, which required a coarser and longer stapled than fine broadcloth. But the farmer could not change his sheep so quickly; were fine wooled, and with the loss of the broadcloth trade the value of fine suffered depreciation; the sheep were valuable for wool only. Their carcasses small, their lambs small, and the sheep being tender, rendered them scarcely nerative; the breeds were suffered to run out and the cultivation of fine wool nearly destroyed in the State and seriously affected in every other State. e flocks that had been bred upon common sheep and become fine-wooled ones now crossed back into coarse-wooled flocks. It was under this system that y 200,000 fine-wooled sheep in 1845 were reduced to 72,290 in 1855. And the affected quite as disastrously coarse-wool growing.

k.—The failure of the Walker tariff as a revenue measure.

d it is shown by Mr. Clarke that as a *revenue measure* "the Walker f" was an utter failure; that in 1846, the year when the Walker tariff enacted, the public debt was only $15,550,202. It increased from nception to the close of the Walker tariff, $13,149,621. That is, otal revenues fell short that much and the customs revenue fell short 790,805. When the actual result was seen in 1861, THE VERY N FROM NEW ENGLAND WHO HAD MISTAKENLY VOTED REDUCE THE TARIFF IN 1857 VOTED UNANIMOUSLY, THAT TOO BEFORE THE WAR BROKE OUT, FOR THE RILL TARIFF OF 1861, WHICH WAS FOR BOTH REVE- E AND PROTECTION.

e receipts *from other sources* during the life of the Walker tariff a success. They came largely from railroad and mining develop- . And during the five years when the customs revenue exceeded expenditure—1850 to 1854, inclusive—extraordinary conditions ailed, which the framers of the tariff had no reason to anticipate, ely, an *output of $290,000,000 of gold from the California mines and uilding of 7,699 miles of railroad, both of which abnormally increased rts and therefore the customs revenue.*

ose unusual conditions misled the statesmen of that day. They ed to think that although the expenditures exceeded the customs nue during the last three years of that tariff by $8,205,305, the r revenues would keep up, and so they reduced the tariff. This ed so much foreign competition that it crippled our resources, ired the purchasing power of the people, brought a panic, and thus ated the expectations of revenue. During the four years' life of tariff of 1857, the expenditures exceeded the customs receipts by 234,116. By 1860 the credit of the United States had become so ired that it was lower than that of some of the States or even of ent individuals. Money had to be borrowed to pay interest. Five cent bonds were offered and some of the bids were made at dis- ts of 24 and 36 per cent. January 1, 1861, the Secretary of the sury was obliged to sell $500,000 of bonds at a discount of 12 per . So much for the effect of the Walker tariff and its successor of ame sort upon the Treasury of the United States.

What the tariff of 1842 would have done.

The tariff of 1842, which the Walker tariff repealed, yielded a surplus during its four years' existence of $16,888,967, and ex-Secretary Thompson has calculated that if it had been continued during the eleven years of the Walker tariff, it would have yielded $193,474,637 more than the Walker tariff did, so that, instead of a debt of $21,790,805 there would have been a surplus of $171,683,832.

IV. Second Period—The Protective Wool Tariff Act of 1867.

1. *The rates of duties.*

The *first* and *only partly just, sufficient*, and, for the time it was in force, effectual protection for wool was given by the tariff act of March 2, 1867—adequate as to clothing wools, but not so as to others. This act classifies wools into clothing, combing, and carpet wools. It imposed duties as follows:

On clothing wools, unwashed: Value 32 cents per pound or less, 10 cents per pound and 11 per cent *ad valorem*; value exceeding 32 cents per pound, 12 cents per pound and 10 per cent *ad valorem;* washed, double duty.

On combing wools: Value 32 cents or less per pound, 10 cents per pound and 11 per cent *ad valorem;* value exceeding 32 cents per pound, 12 cents per pound and 10 per cent *ad valorem.*

On carpet wools: Value 12 cents per pound or less, 3 cents per pound; value over 12 cents per pound, 6 cents per pound.

On all classes scoured, treble duty.

2. Under the operation of this law the wool industry prospered.

The increase in the number of sheep from 1860 to 1870, chiefly under the operation of the prior law, before the act of 1867 had full effect, amounted to 6,006,675 or 27 per cent; but from 1870 to 1880 the increase in number was 12,288,309 or about 44 per cent; and in 1884 our sheep numbered 50,626,626. Our wool product increased faster than our sheep; that is, "the average weight of fleece rose from 2½ and 3½ pounds to 5 and 5½ pounds, according to location (See North's Wool Book, 1892, p. 15, U. S. Senate Mis. Doc., No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, p. 289; Wool Report, Treasury Department, 1887, P. XLIV).

Thus the wool industry, for the first time in our history, grew rapidly, was prosperous and remunerative under the act of March 2, 1867, and up to act of March 3, 1883.*

* The number of sheep and product of wool for the years specified were as shown in the U. S. Treasury Department, Wool Report 1887, Bureau Statistics, p. LXXI-LXXII. Also Appendix, Table No. 3, p. 16, and Table No. 20, p. 164, as follows:

Years.	Number of sheep.	Product in pounds.	Years.	Number of sheep.	Product in pounds.
1850	21,723,220	52,516,959	1880	40,765,900	240,681,751
1860	22,471,275	60,264,913	1881	43,769,899	272,000,000
1870	28,477,951	100,102,387	1882	45,016,224	290,000,000
1875	33,783,600	.....	1883	49,237,291	300,000,000
1876	35,935,300	.....	1884	50,626,626	308,000,000
1877	35,894,200	.....	1885	50,360,243	302,800,000
1878	35,740,500	.....	1886	48,322,331	286,000,000
1879	38,123,800	232,506,000	1887	44,759,314	.....

The census figures are found on pages 162–163 of the report. They give the number of sheep 1880, 35,192,074, and wool product 240,681,751 pounds.

The figures on page 164 are those of the Department of Agriculture.

From 1880 to January, 1884, sheep increased 24 per cent; 1880, 40,765,900 sheep to 50,626,626 in January, 1884. This was the result of the protection given by the act of March 2, 1867, the best protection in our history. North's Wool Book for 1892, adopting the statistics of the Department of Agriculture, says the wool product of the United States in 1872 was 150,000,000, and in 1884 it was 300,000,000 pounds, an increase of 100 per cent.

The wool product shows by its increase the beneficial effect of protection. Adopting the figures already given, product 1880, 240,681,751 pounds; product 1884, 308,000,000 pounds, the increase is over 24 per cent.

Theodore Justice adopts the following estimates of wool clip:

Pounds of wool grown.

1881—290,000,000 1882—300,000,000 1883—320,400,000	Increase of 10¼ per cent in three years: law of 1867. Duty, 12¼ cents per pound.

(See U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session, chart at page 54.)

And Mr. Justice gives the following:

Number of sheep in 1868, the first year after the tariff law of 1867, was 33,991,912 sheep, valued at $2.17 per head, making a total value to the farmers of the United States of $84,612,449, yielding a clip estimated by the Department of Agriculture of 180,000,000 pounds, but estimated by the great statisticians, James Lynch, of New York, and J. B. Truitt, of Philadelphia, of 162,350,000.

The number of sheep in 1884, the year when the tariff reduction of the law of 1883 went into effect, 50,626,626 sheep, valued at $2.37 per head, valued at $119,902,706; estimated by the Agricultural Department 300,000,090 pounds; estimated by the trade statisticians, James Lynch, of New York, and J. B. Truitt, of Philadelphia, at 337,000,500 pounds. The number of sheep in 1893, 46,000,000, valued at $2 per head, total valuation, $90,000,000; estimated by the trade experts, J. B. Truitt and others, at 329,410,542 pounds. For additional valuable wool statistics refer to the wool book compiled in 1892 by S. N. D. North, of the National Association of Woolen Manufacturers.

(See U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, page 82.)

3. If the act of 1867 had continued in force American sheep would be in 1895 over 100,000,000, producing annually over 650,000,000 pounds of wool.

The wool circular of Justice, Bateman & Co., March 1, 1894, adopting figures somewhat different, reaches the same result, and says:

GROW OUR WOOL AT HOME.

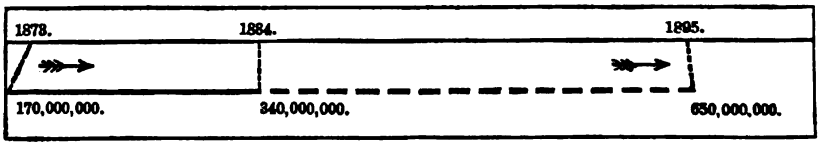
The American sheep husbandry under adequate protection has twice made such rapid headway in the increase of flocks as to lead to the assurance that with the continuance of that protection we would soon produce the total amount of wool consumed by this country. During the last twelve years of the tariff law of 1867 the the American clip increased 100 per cent, that increase being from 170,000,000 pounds in 1873 to over 340,000,000 pounds in 1884. If the duties had not been lowered at the end of that period, it is fair to assume that the same ratio of increase would have continued, in which case we would have produced in 1895 over 650,000,000 pounds, which, including the raw wool imported in the shape of manufactured goods, is the total amount of wool consumed by this country. A serious check to the growth of the wool industry was given by the reduction of duties by the act of March 3, 1883.

The actual increase during the period alluded to above is illustrated by the solid black lines extending from left to right in the following diagram. The *dotted lines which continue* in the same direction indi-

cate the time at which we would arrive at the production of our entire home consumption of wool.

a. Illustration by a diagram.

Diagram showing that the rate of increase from 1873 to 1884 under the protective influence of the tariff law of 1867, if continued at the same ratio until 1895 the wool clip of the United States would then have reached 650,000,000 pounds which, including the wool contained in imported goods, is all that is annually consumed by the American people at the present time.



b. Democratic evidence that the act of 1867 was beneficial.

In the Report of Hon. William F. Switzler, chief of the Treasury Department Bureau of Statistics (Wool Report, p. XLIII), it is said:

In 1870 the number of sheep was 28,677,951 and the wool clip 100,102,387 pounds. THE MOST RAPID INCREASE EVER ATTAINED IN THIS COUNTRY BEGAN IN 1869 AND CONTINUED UNTIL 1884 [when the tariff was reduced by the act of 1883], BOTH IN NUMBER OF SHEEP AND WEIGHT of *clip*.

And this increase would have continued, and the result predicted by Justice Bateman & Co. would have followed, notwithstanding the fact *that during a portion of the period in which the act of 1867 was operating there were abnormal circumstances tending to retard increase in the number of sheep and in the wool product.*

4. *The protective tariff gave prosperity notwithstanding adverse abnormal conditions. Abnormal conditions tending to retard the prosperity of the wool industry.*

The number of sheep (1) was largely increased by the demand for wool during the war, from 1861 to 1865. (2) The number was further increased from 1865 to 1868, in anticipation of the passage of a highly protective wool tariff bill, introduced in Congress in 1866, thus making the number abnormal, in view of then existing conditions. (3) Then this increase in sheep and wool products was met with excessive imports of foreign wool, in anticipation of the new tariff. (4) The great accumulations of woolen goods during and at the close of the war, and (5) the increase of sheep in foreign countries, and as a consequence, the regular decline in wool prices all over the world.

Switzler's [Democratic] Wool Report of 1887, p. LX., proves all these five points. It says:

(1-2) Confident of the passage of the [wool] tariff introduced in 1866, and which had been passed by the House of Representatives, the farmers of the country increased their flocks, especially beyond the Mississippi, and the growth of wool rapidly increased, in the expectation of a great rise in prices consequent upon the high rates of duty imposed. * * * (3) The long delay between the inception of the bill and its final passage [in the act of March 2, 1867] resulted in large importations under the old [low] tariff; consequently, when the tariff actually went into operation the market was overstocked. (4) In addition to this, large quantities of army clothing *accumulated* during the war were thrown upon the market at exceedingly low prices [*by auction sales* under the authority of the War Department] and added to the *dullness of* the demand for wool from the manufacturers.

(5) As to increase of sheep in foreign countries, see Consular Reports No. 108, September, 1889, pp. 13, 165; No. 117, June, 1890, p. 242; No. 121, October, 1890, p. 253; No. 127, April, 1891, pp. 499, 567; No. 128, May, 1891, pp. 97, 104; North's Wool Book, 1892, pp. 80, 84; American Economist, January, 1892, p. 5; Switzler's Wool Report, 1887, p. 226; Bulletin National Association Wool Manufacturers, 1888, No. 1, p. 98; Bulletin, No. 1, 1888, pp. 64, 66.

William Lloyd Garrison's ornate free wool pamphlet of December 15, 1889, referring to wool tariff, in this connection candidly says: "Other and more potent factors interfered to lessen flocks."

He might have added that just before the tariff of 1867 went into operation, the country was flooded with foreign wool, and the Quartermaster-General threw upon the market as a legacy of war supplies, 2,218,917 great coats, 267,500 uniform coats, 539,253 sacque coats, 358,887 trousers, 802,419 blankets, 404,006 shirts, and an immense amount of other clothing and cloths.

The Monthly Report, Statistician Department Agriculture, May, 1892, says:

The numbers of sheep increased abnormally during the war period. In 1866 correspondents were appointed throughout the South, but the service was incomplete and crude in all sections, slowly improving and becoming comparatively effective by 1870. The large flocks of the period were cut down ruthlessly in 1868 and 1869 from the low prices throughout the world, the result of plethora and glut, both in wool and woolens in all markets. The reduction in three or four years was doubtless 15 to 20 per cent, but the annual estimates can not be made with reliably close approximation. The tariff of 1867 stayed the advanced tide and ameliorated the situation, but could not prevent the slaughter of a portion of the flocks, which is a result that always follows unsatisfactory prices.

And the foregoing answers also the statements that sheep declined in number from 1867 to 1886 in Ohio, California, and other States. Robert Blenkie in Tariff Hearings, Committee Ways and Means, first session, Fifty-first Congress, p. 315.

Sheep were for for a time reduced in numbers in Ohio because they were shipped to new States and Territories to supply a demand created by the tariff. And the test of protection is its permanent effect on the wool industry as a whole.

The monthly report, Department of Agriculture, May, 1892, p. 175, says:

From nearly 32,000,000 sheep in 1871 there was a gradual increase to over 50,000,000 in 13 years, or 59 per cent. Then a slight change in the tariff occurred followed by revenue decisions liberal in certain directions, and also coincident with reductions of wool values in foreign markets, precipitating the inevitable effect of discouragement, and reducing numbers over 7,000,000 in 4 years, or 16 per cent. Since 1888 numbers of sheep have increased and prices have advanced, with slight increase in wool values, subject to temporary fluctuation. The average farm values of sheep in these periods of decline and of tendency to recuperation are thus presented:

Year.	Value.	Year.	Value.
1885	$2.14	1889	$2.13
1886	1.91	1890	2.27
1887	2.01	1891	2.50
1888	2.05	1892	2.58

The fall in the price of foreign wool occurred in 1882, when the British average of imports declined from *27.9 cents in 1881 to 24.8* cents, but at the beginning of 1883 the

average of our flocks was $2.53, a little higher than the year before, the decline manifesting itself in January, 1884, when the average fell to $2.37, continuing to drop annually to 1886, and showing no considerable rise until 1890.

THE CONCLUSION IS INEVITABLE, THAT ADEQUATE PROTECTION PROTECTS.

V. THE THIRD PERIOD—THE INADEQUATE REDUCED PROTECTIVE TARIFF OF MARCH 3, 1883.

1. *The rates of duty under the act of March 3, 1883.*

Unfortunately Congress, by the act of March 3, 1883, reduced the duties on wool, *intending*, but mistakenly, to still make them adequately protective, as fallows:

Clothing wools, value, 30 cents per pound or less, 10 cents per pound; value, over 30 cents, 12 cents per pound; washed wool, double duty.
Combing wool, value 30 cents per pound or less, 10 cents per pound; value, over 30 cents per pound, 12 cents per pound.
Carpet wools, value, 12 cents per pound or less, 2½ cents per pound; value, over 12 cents per pound, 5 cents per pound.
All classes scoured, treble duty.

In addition to this reduction, the repeal of sections 2907 and 2908 of the Revised Statutes, remitting charges, commissions, etc., made a further material reduction.

2. *Causes operating to injure the wool industry.*

The wool industry was seriously affected by several causes operating from March 3, 1883.

Some of the causes operating to injuriously affect sheep husbandry.

A. The reduction of duties by the act of March 3, 1883.

B. The election of Mr. Cleveland as President in 1884, with a policy, as it turned out, favoring free wool.

C. His Secretary of the Treasury, in his annual report of December 6, 1866, said:

I respectfully recommend to Congress * * * the immediate passage of an act simply and solely placing raw wool on the free list.

And he recommended a reduction of duties on manufactured woolens.

D. In pursuance of these recommendations, a Democratic House of Representatives of the Fiftieth Congress in 1888 passed the so-called "Mills bill," for placing wool on the free list, but a Republican Senate protected the country from its passage.

E. President Cleveland, in his message to Congress December 6, 1887, said:

The benefit of the present wool tariff is illusory," and he suggested reasons "why the removal or reduction of the duty should be included in a revision of our tariff laws."

F. The House of Representatives of the Fifty-second Congress, first session, with its Democratic majority, passed the "Springer bill" on April 7, 1892, proposing to place wool on the free list, and thence free wool became the watchword of the Democratic party.

A Republican Senate did not pass either of these bills, but the dread of free wool was an operative influence to injure sheep husbandry.

3. *The beneficial effect of the election of Gen. Harrison as President in 1888.*

The people in 1888, by the election of Gen. Harrison to the Presidency and a Republican House of Representatives, condemned free wool, and the McKinley protective tariff act of October 1, 1890, gave a renewed assurance that the people disapproved the free-wool scheme.

4. *Statistics of the decline of sheep husbandry under the act of 1883.*

But from 1884, with the reduced wool duties of the act of 1883 and the hostile measures mentioned up to the McKinley protective act of 1890, sheep husbandry declined. Flock owners impressed with the threatened danger of free wool, and the consequent depreciation of the value of sheep and wool, hastened the slaughter of sheep.

The result was that sheep and wool production declined as follows:

Year.	Number of sheep.	Wool production.
		Pounds.
1884	50,626,626	308,000,000
1889	42,599,079	265,000,000

Here is a decline of about 16 per cent, whereas, with increased population and demand, there should have been a large increase.

Theodore Justice states the decline thus:

The rush to get rid of sheep was unprecedented, and the decrease in the number of sheep during this period was from 50,500,000 in 1884 to 41,500,000 in 1888, or over 17 per cent.

The decrease in the wool product is shown as follows:

Year.	Pounds of wool.	
1884	337,500,000	
1885	329,600,000	
1886	323,031,026	
1887	302,169,950	Decrease of 6 per cent in seven years; law of 1883. Duty, 10 cents per pound.
1888	301,876,121	
1889	295,779,479	
1890	309,474,856	

This brings us to:

VI. The Fourth Period.—Sheep Husbandry under the McKinley protective-tariff act of October 1, 1890.

1. *Time required for a tariff law to produce its intended effect.*

Every wool-tariff law requires "TIME" for it to produce its intended or other results. This is especially so when recovering from the threatened free wool of preceding years. "Confidence is a plant of slow growth."

2. *Beneficial effect of the McKinley act.*

But the McKinley act has borne good fruits. Under the depressing effect of the threat of free wool sheep had declined, so that in 1889 the number of sheep was 42,599,079, with wool product of 265,000,000 pounds.

3. *Beneficial effect of the election of 1888, even in advance of the actual passage of the McKinley bill.*

The election of Gen. Harrison to the Presidency in 1888, and a Congress favoring protection commencing March 4, 1889, had a reassuring effect, and even *in advance* of the McKinley act of October 1, 1890, the sheep, in January, 1890, were increased to 44,336,072, with a wool clip of 364,156,666 pounds in that year.

4. *Statistics of the increase of sheep husbandry under the McKinley act.*

Thus the effect of reassured protection, followed by the McKinley act, produced the results following:

Year.	Number of sheep.	Wool production.
		Pounds.
1889	42,599,079	265,000,000
1893	47,273,553	364,156,666
Increase	4,674,474	99,156,666

Here is an increase in wool product of 37 per cent.

The wool circular of Justice Bateman & Co., of March 1, 1894, says:

With the restoration of a portion of those duties by the McKinley law in 1890, such an impetus was given to the woolgrowing industry that the clip again increased at a rapid rate. The increase was from 310,000,000 pounds in 1891 to 360,000,000 in 1893, so that if the McKinley law had not been assailed it is fair to assume that by the year 1900 we would produce 650,000,000 pounds.

And it gives the increase of wool as follows:

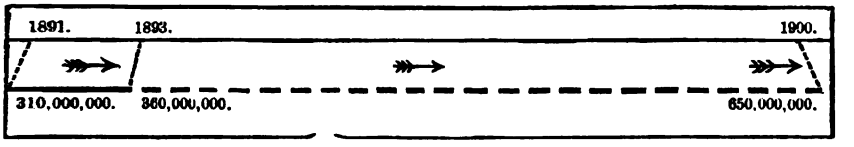
Year.	Pounds.	
1891	307,101,507	Increase of 18½ per cent in three years. McKinley law. Duty, 11 cents per pound.
1892	333,018,405	
1893	364,156,666	

5. *If the McKinley act could be improved and continued it would soon increase our sheep so as to produce all needed wools.*

The wool circular adds:

The actual increase during this period is illustrated by the *solid black lines* extending from left to right in the following diagram. The dotted lines, which continue in the same direction, indicate the *time* at which we would arrive at the production of our *entire home consumption of wool.*

Diagram showing that at the rate of increase from 1891 to 1893 under the McKinley law, if continued at the same rate until 1900 the wool clip of United States would hen have reached 650,000,000 pounds which, including the wool in imported goods, s all that is annually consumed by the American people at the present time.



This country in the past has produced the equal of every quality of wool raised in ny other part of the world. There is no quality of foreign wool the equal of which an not be and has not been produced in America. The only reason why certain ualities which were formerly raised here in great abundance are now imported is ecause they are produced more cheaply in foreign countries.

"Full and adequate protection," which the McKinley act was *ntended to give*, but does NOT give, would enable American wool-rowers *in five years to* produce ALL needed wools if they could have n assurance that free-wool schemes were finally abandoned.

. Additional evidence that AMERICAN WOOLS ARE THE BEST IN THE WORLD.

And it is appropriate here to give *additional evidence* that AMERICAN WOOLS ARE THE BEST WOOLS GROWN IN THE WORLD.

Thus in Switzler's Wool Report of 1888 it is said (p. XXXVII):

In 1851 at the World's Exhibition in London four prize medals were awarded to American sheep, and at the international exhibition of 1863 at Hamburg, where *all he finest flocks of Europe were represented*, two first-class prizes were awarded to Merino sheep from Vermont.

And see U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, pp. 149, 156, 249; U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session, pp. 24, 64.

6. ANOTHER PHASE OF THE FOURTH, OR M'KINLEY PERIOD.

Reference has been made to *tariff duties as affected in their operation by* "PROSPECTIVE CONDITIONS."

. The injury to sheep husbandry by prospective conditions—the threat of free wool.

The experience of the past year is, that sheep husbandry has been seriously interfered with, by *two causes:*

1. The financial panic of 1893; and still more, by
2. The "prospective condition" of free wool, threatened by the so-called Wilson bill, which passed the House of Representatives February 1, 1894.

On the reelection of Mr. Cleveland as President in 1892, it was, of course, understood from the National Democratic platform, on which he was elected, that there would be a general reduction of duties, and that wools would be put on the free list.

This fact was the main cause of the financial panic commencing about June, 1893.

This panic was and is one of the "*present conditions*," resulting in the low price of wool.

The price began to decline in March, 1893—with the inauguration of President Cleveland—and continued until by November and since it reached the lowest level in the history of the American wool industry.

(See U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, pp. 332; U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session, 43, 93.)

It has been estimated that the *panic* was a "*condition*" which caused about 10 to 15 per cent of the decline in the value of sheep. (See U. S. Senate Miss. Doc. No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session, p. 82.)

And the same estimate would apply to the decline in the price of wool.

But the CHIEF CAUSE of the *decline in the value of both sheep and wool* is, beyond all question, the PROSPECTIVE REPEAL OF THE WOOL TARIFF.

This has been fully proved, and it is unnecessary here to repeat the evidence. (See U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, pp. 70, 163, 273, 293; U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session, 56–58 and diagram.)

The effect of these *combined causes* has been, and is, that sheep have been reduced in number from 47,273,553 in January, 1893, to 45,048,017 in January, 1894, with a large diminution since.

Here is a loss of 2,225,536 in one year, as shown by the statistics of the Department of Agriculture.

And this is the effect *thus far* of the threat of free wool. FREE WOOL IS FREE RUIN. ADEQUATE PROTECTION IS PROSPERITY.

VII. Benefits of the McKinley Laws to Wool growers by Provisions in Addition to Those for the Increase of Wool Duties.

1. Two McKinley acts.

There were two acts of Congress passed at the same session relating to customs duties—one was the act of June 10, 1890, known as "the McKinley administrative act;" the other is known as the "McKinley protective tariff act" of October 1, 1890.

The first was intended more effectually to secure a faithful administration of the law, and the latter to protect American industries.

This latter act did more for sheep husbandry than to increase duties on wools.

In the annual address of William Lawrence, president of the Ohio Woolgrowers' Association at Columbus, January 12, 1892, *some* of the *improvements by* the McKinley tariff act, on prior laws, are thus summarized:

The new tariff law has been and doubtless will be of substantial benefit to wool growers, for three principal reasons:

1. It increases duties on most kinds of *wool* and *sheep;* gives American woolgrowers an advantage over foreign, and encourages American production.

2. By *increasing* duties on *wool wastes, shoddy, camel's hair,* and *all goat hair, whether unsuitable for combing*—all used as substitutes for wools—the *imports* of these fibers are reduced, thus increasing the demand for wools.

3. *It* increases duties on *woolen goods, limits importation,* increases American manufactures, and so enlarges the American demand for wools.

To these may be added:

4. *That* the provisions of the "administrative act" will aid in securing a faithful administration of the tariff act, and in preventing frauds upon the revenue.

These were commented on at much length and illustrated by an array statistics. But full presentation of them is not appropriate to the rpose of this chapter.

VIII. PROTECTION PROTECTS.

1. This has been shown by the statistics already presented.
2. But it is shown by facts as illustrated in a letter of Theodore stice, published in the Wheeling (W. Va.) Intelligencer of March 7, 94, as follows:

WOOL DUTIES.

EY HAVE BEEN A PROTECTION TO THE AMERICAN FARMER—A FREE TRADER KNOCKED OUT.

. CHAS. BURDETT HART, *Wheeling Intelligencer, Wheeling, W. Va.:*

DEAR SIR: Yours of the 28th ult. is received. I have just had time to read the ter of Mr. Welles in the Wheeling *Register*. He is evidently *unfamiliar* with subject which he discusses, and, like Congressman Springer, of Illinois, *selects h figures for American wool as are nearest to figures abroad in order that he may make h comparisons as please him, utterly regardless of the fact that the wools which he is paring are not of the same kind and quality nor of the same value.*

The London price for scoured merino, a wool of a No. 60's quality, is quoted in ndon to-day at 8 pence, or 16c., shrinking 50 per cent. It has the skirts and bellies mmed off and is about such wool as XX Ohio and about such wool as would make No. 60 top like the sample of top on exhibition in the office of the INTELLIGENCER. is No. 60's top can be bought in England at from 35c. to 37c. To make top like sample at this price, skirted, scoured wool must be bought at 5c. less than the ce of tops. In other words, scoured, skirted XX wool must be bought in the free-de markets of the world at from 30c. to 32c.

Now XX Ohio and West Virginia washed fleece, to sell scoured at from 30 to 32c., uld have to bring not over 15 or 16c. in the fleece. It would cost all of 5c. per und to-day to ship it from West Virginia farms to the London market, and if its lue in London is from 15 to 16c., the price on the farm would be not over 11c. for ch wool as for many years brought an average of 30c. on the farm during the ppy period before Grover Cleveland disturbed the American wool market by his orts to destroy the wool industry of the United States.

There is unlimited opportunity for woolgrowers to ascertain the accuracy of the ove quotations in the London market by sending some trial shipments to that rket.

Any man that knows anything about wool knows that Ohio and West Virginia eces previous to 1860 were lighter than the wools produced during the past ten ars, and the average shrinkage previous to 1860 was under 40 per cent, while the erage shrinkage since 1890 has been in the neighborhood of 53 per cent, and when r. Welles undertakes to prove that wools previous to 1860 wasted over 50 per cent, is the case since 1890, he exposes his utter ignorance on the subject of the condi-n of wool then and now.

If he would consult the Hon. John McDowell, of Washington, he will find that evious to 1860 washed fine wool shrank 12 or 15 per cent less than the same grades of 93. The actual scoured wool in the fleece is all that has value for comparison, and t the grease that goes down the stream.

Nevertheless, the fact remains that American scoured merino wool on March 1, 93, was only 12½ per cent lower than the same grade of wool averaged from 1846 1860, and foreign wool of the same kind and quality was over 46 per cent lower 1893 than its value in the London market previous to 1860, and this difference in ror of the American farmer was wholly owing to protection.

Yours, truly,

THEODORE JUSTICE.

PHILADELPHIA, *March 5, 1894.*

3. The following will explain the reference above to Hon. William M. Springer:

FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC FLEECE WOOL—MISUSE OF A TABLE OF FLUCTUATIONS IN PRICE OF WOOL FURNISHED BY NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF WOOL MANUFACTURERS TO COMMITTEE ON WAYS AND MEANS.

Editor Boston Journal of Commerce:

You say editorially in your issue of March 12 that the comparison between the prices of Ohio medium and Port Phillip washed wool, furnished Mr. Springer, of the Ways and Means Committee, was "unfortunate, and was inadvertent and a purely clerical error." Permit me to say that the clerical error was made by Mr. Springer, in utilizing the figures furnished him for a purpose foreign to that for which they were compiled. In consequence he drew conclusions which every manufacturer knows to be ridiculous. The figures were taken from a diagram published in the December Bulletin of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, for the purpose of showing that the marked fluctuations in the price of wool have been almost simultaneous in time and corresponding in amount in the United States and in London; in other words, that these fluctuations in the prices of domestic wools occurred independently of the then rate of duty on wool and were determined by the conditions prevailing from time to time in the world's wool markets.

For this purpose Ohio medium and Port Phillip fleece were suggested as the two lines of wool represented on the diagram which would best illustrate the fact, because they showed less violent fluctuations. Ohio fine wool would, as you suggest, have given a much more exact comparison, if the *relative cost* of domestic and foreign wools had been the object in view. But it would have been equally deceptive in any such use as Mr. Springer attempted to make of the figures; for, as you know, there have been long periods when its price has been less than that of Ohio medium.

But the table was not intended to show *relative cost*, but simply *relative fluctuations in price*, which is a very different thing. One must believe that the Ways and Means Committee inadvertently, and not intentionally, made a wrong and improper use of the figures given it, because it was a mistake certain to be at once detected and exposed.

I ask you to publish the letter to Mr. McMillin, of the Ways and Means Committee, in which his attention was directed to the matter.

Very truly, yours,

S. N. D. NORTH,
Secretary.

The following is the letter referred to:

BOSTON, MASS., *March 9, 1892.*

Hon. BENTON MCMILLIN:

MY DEAR SIR: My attention has been called to the use made, in the report on House bill 6007, of a table supplied by me, and showing the fluctuations of prices in Boston and London for a series of years of Ohio medium washed wool and Port Phillip fleece washed, being the grades of domestic and Australian wool most nearly alike on a chart or diagram of wool prices printed in the Bulletin of this association, for December, 1891.

The inferences drawn from this diagram by the report of the Ways and Means Committee differ from those which accompanied the publication of the diagram in the Bulletin, and as they are incorrect, I venture to call your attention to the following facts in the case:

The purpose of the diagram was to illustrate the fact that the prices of domestic wools are dependent upon other conditions than the rates of tariff duty on wool. It was in no sense an attempt to show *the relative cost*, to the manufacturer, here and abroad, of a *scoured pound of wool*. Hence the essential elements of such a comparison were lacking. No allusion was made to the fact that the Port Phillip fleece is *skirted* wool, while the Ohio wools are sent to market *unskirted*. Nor was anything said of the *relative shrinkage* of these wools.

In buying wool, manufacturers invariably reckon its scoured cost. The Ohio medium wool will shrink, say 40 per cent; and, if costing 37 cents, would be worth, scoured, 61¾ cents a pound. The Port Phillip washed wool will shrink, say 20 to 30 per cent, and costing 37 cents per pound would be worth, *scoured*, say 50 cents per pound, on the average. None of this wool reaches the United States, on account of *the double* duty. But the Port Phillip *greasy* wool, costing, say 25 cents, and *shrinking* 50 per cent, would be worth, scoured, say 50 cents, to which the duty of 11 *cents may* be added before we reach the value of the Ohio medium wool in the same

ndition. You will thus readily see how many manufacturers are able to import 'eign wool to advantage and pay the duty, when they are seeking *special* qualities · *special* purposes.

[much regret that a diagram of prices which was intended only to show the *ative fluctuations* in the prices of foreign and domestic wools, as its title plainly licates, should have been used by your committee for the entirely different pur-se of showing *the relative cost* of these wools. I regret it because it not only places › committee in a false position, but myself as well.

With great respect, very truly yours,

S. N. D. NORTH,
Secretary National Association of Wool Manufacturers.

4. *Additional* argument to prove that protection protects, from the nerican Economist, New York, February 16, 1894:

PROTECTION DOES PROTECT.

THIS IS CLEARLY PROVEN BY THE HISTORY OF OUR WOOLEN INDUSTRY.

SOME PLAIN FACTS AND FIGURES.

The following table and diagram show the increase in the number of sheep under › protective tariff of 1867, during the last four years of which law the duties lected on first and second class wools were 12½ cents per pound. This was ade-ate protection.

During the four years from 1880 to 1883, when the effect of protective duties was ving its full influence, the number of sheep in the United States increased 25 per nt.

The duties were reduced in 1883 from 12½ cents per pound on wools of the first and :ond class to about 10 cents per pound. An administration openly hostile to the ›ol industry was advocating the passage of tariff bills placing wool upon the free t. Under these discouraging influences, in connection with the reduction of duties 1883, the number of sheep in the United States during the four years preceding n. Harrison's election decreased 18 per cent, a decrease wholly due to the assault on the wool industry.

In 1888 the election of a Republican President on the issue of "Protection for ›ol" checked the slaughter of sheep previously carried to such a large extent, and e flocks began once more to increase at a rapid rate. During the five years fol-wing President Harrison's election, including the period while the McKinley law as in force and until that law was assailed by the Wilson bill, the number of sheep the United States increased 13 per cent.

We thus have three periods, which are here illustrated by a diagram showing that ıring two of these periods which were under tariff laws affording adequate protec-›n the number of sheep increased more rapidly than the increase in the sheep of any her nation in the world.

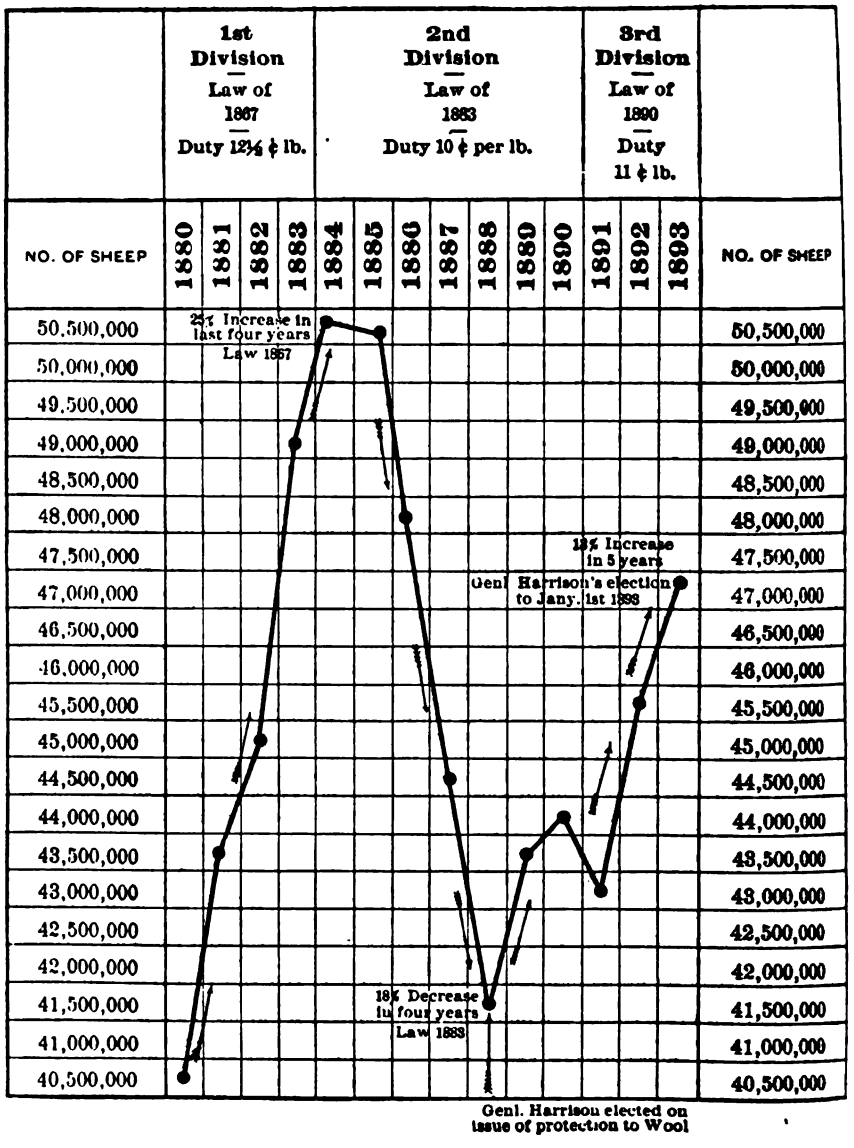
During the one other intervening period, which was one of inadequate protection ıring an administration menace to the industry, the number of sheep decreased per cent. The flocks at the same time in the other leading wool-growing nations the world, which were not menaced with adverse legislation, were increasing.

The increase in the flocks of the United States was great under the two periods adequate protection, as shown in the diagram. The rapid decrease in the single :riod of inadequate protection which intervened between the repeal of the tariff 1867 and the McKinley law in 1891 is also plainly shown by diagram on page 104:

The following table shows the increase of the wool clip during the last three years the tariff law of 1867 and during the first three years of the McKinley law. It so shows the decrease during the seven years intervening, when protection was adequate and the industry was menaced by adverse legislation:

81..290, 500, 000 82..300, 000, 000 83..320, 400, 000	Increase of 10¼ per cent in 3 years. Law of 1867. Duty 12½ cents per pound.
84..337, 000, 000 85..329, 600, 000 86..323, 031, 026 87..302, 169, 950 88..301, 876, 121 89..295, 779, 479 90..309, 474, 856	Decrease of 6 per cent in 7 years. Law of 1883. Duty 10 cents per pound,
91..307, 101, 507 92..333, 018, 405 93..364, 150, 666	*Increase of 18¼ per cent in 3 years.* *McKinley law. Duty 11 cents per pound.*

An examination of this table shows that the wool clip of the United States increased 10½ per cent during the last three years of the tariff law of 1867. The duties then on clothing and combing wool averaged 12½ cents per pound, which was adequate protection.



It also shows a decrease of 6 per cent in the seven years of inadequate protection and hostile legislation covering the period between the repeal of the high tariff of 1867 and the passage of the McKinley law. During this period of seven years the duties averaged about 10 cents per pound, which was insufficient to cover the advantages possessed by the woolgrowers of the Southern hemisphere, and was a *revenue duty* pure and simple, for whatever duties lack of being protective they are *to this extent* merely revenue duties. This decrease averaged 6 per cent, notwithstanding the large increase in 1890, which was the result of President Harrison's *election in 1888.*

EFFECT OF THE M'KINLEY TARIFF.

The three years under the McKinley law, from the passage of that measure until its influence was rendered void by the attempt to repeal it in the latter part of 1893, covered an enormous increase amounting to 18½ per cent in the years 1891, 1892, and 1893. Here is the most positive evidence that the wool clip of the United States has rapidly increased under protection, showing that adequate protection does protect.

The greater rate of increase under the 11-cent duty of the McKinley law over and above the rate of increase under the tariff of 1867, when duty was 12½ cents per pound, was partly because of the better employment by the American mills under the schedules of the McKinley tariff, for not only was there a demand for every pound of American home-grown wool, but, in order to supply the wants of American manufacturers who were making goods that heretofore had been imported, there was in addition a demand for 32 per cent more foreign wool than had ever been imported in any previous year or under any previous tariff law. American manufactures were in no way hampered by the lack of free raw material, because they never before had bought and used so much domestic or foreign wool, and the price of clothing in the meantime was lower to the consumer than it had ever been before.

The rate of increase of American wool under protection was greater than in any other nation of the world.

During the last twelve years of the tariff law of 1867, including the year 1884, one year after that law had been repealed, but before the effect of the appeal was visible, the wool clip of the United States doubled. The clip of 1873 was 170,000,000 pounds, which had increased to 340,000,000 pounds in 1884—an increase of 100 per cent. The greatest increase in any other nation of the world in this period was Australia, where the increase was only 64 per cent. At Cape of Good Hope the increase was 60 per cent, and in the Argentine Republic 35 per cent. In Great Britain, the only country where the climatic conditions were at all similar to those in the United States, and the only country named in this comparison where sheep have to be fed crops during the winter months, the wool clip decreased 19 per cent under free trade, while in the United States, during the same year, the wool clip increased 100 per cent, although our winters are much more severe than those of Great Britain.

This difference clearly illustrates the effect of protection and free trade upon the sheep and wool industry in the North Temperate Zone.

A comparison of the increase in the wool clip of the United States under the tariff law of 1867 with the increase and the decrease of the wool clip in the leading free-trade wool producing countries of the world is exhibited in the following chart (page 106), entitled "Period of Adequate Protection:"

Ever since the passage of the Tariff law of 1867 the average price of clothing wool in the free-trade markets of the world has been more than 50 per cent below the price of the same grade and quality of wool under protection in the United States. Without protection the London price would have been the American price, and the latter could not have been double the foreign price, as has been the case.

If the American woolgrower had sold his wool in London under free trade, instead of under protection in the United States, his wool would have netted him less than half of the prices actually obtained in the United States. Therefore, protection has been of benefit to the American woolgrower, else why has he received during all the periods of the thirty-three years of tariff protection double the price that the same wool would have brought in the free-trade markets of the world?

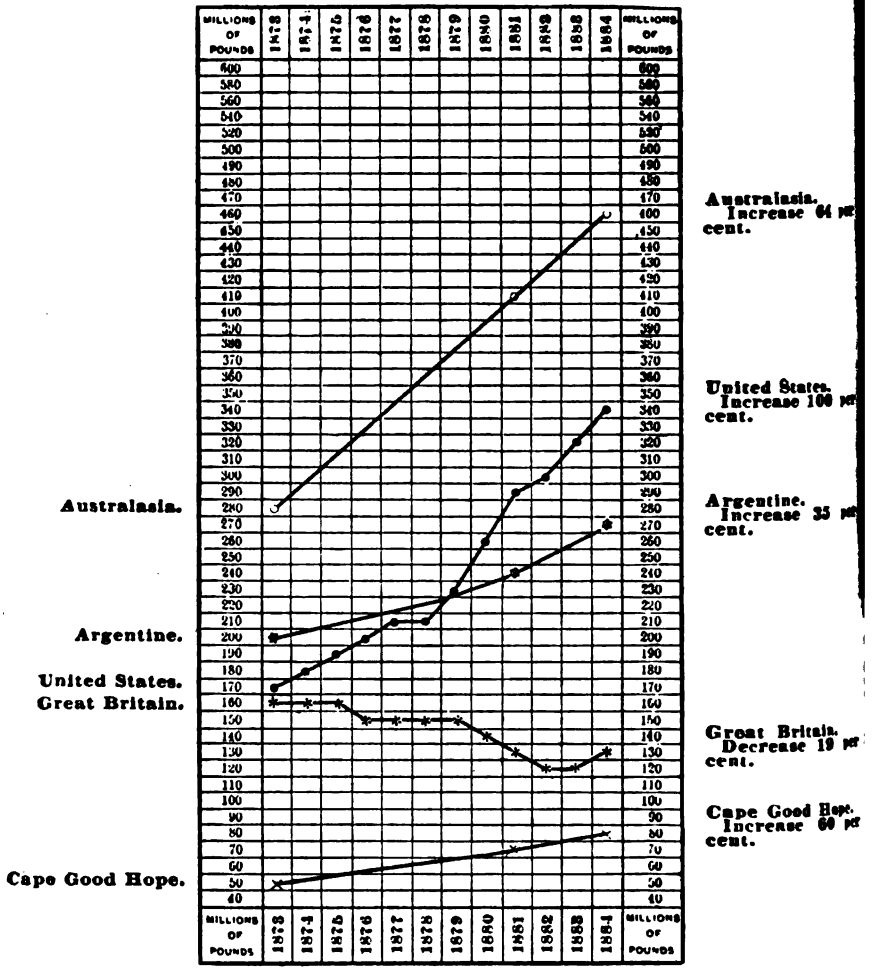
With all of the above facts established without the possibility of doubt, does it not seem audacious for free traders to insist that "protection has been of no benefit whatever to the American woolgrower?"

LOCATION AND NUMBER OF SHEEP.

Below is a statement and table exhibiting the location and number of the sheep, and giving their wool product for the years 1870 and 1893. The figures for 1870 were taken from the United States census. The figures for 1893 were taken from the report of the United States Commissioner of Agriculture. These figures show an increase under a protective tariff of 66 per cent in the number of sheep, and of 263 per cent in the wool product. The greater percentage of increase of the wool product is partly due to the increase in the weight of the fleece, owing to the fact that, in 1893, 75 per cent of the wool product was fine wool or wool of the Merino blood, while in 1890 a much larger proportion of the wool product of the United States was the light, open, coarse wool which during the war had been in such demand for army purposes.

The greater proportion of *the increase in the* pounds of wool over the increase in the number *of sheep is partly due to the heavier* fleeces yielded by the sheep in the *trans-Mississippi section. In 1893, 27,614,599* sheep, or more than 58 per cent of the

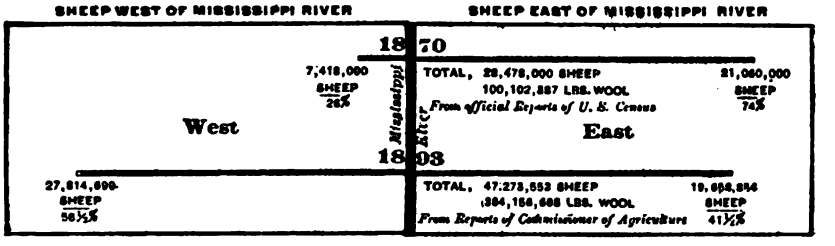
whole number in the United States, were located west of the Mississippi; while in 1870 only 7,418,000 sheep, or 26 per cent, were in that locality. This enormous increase in the number of sheep and in the wool product during twenty-three years of protection successfully disposes of the disingenuous statements made by partizan supporters of the Wilson bill that "protection has been of no advantage to the wool-growers," which they attempted to prove by selecting a few of the older woolgrowing localities in which there were fewer sheep than there had been in the same localities in 1870.



What better evidence could be shown that protection does protect than is shown by the increased length of the lower black line in this diagram, illustrating the increase in the number of sheep in the United States under periods of what are called high protection?

The fall in prices in American wool from June 1 to December 31, 1893, in comparison with the same period before the McKinley tariff law was assailed in 1892, has been over 40 per cent, as shown by the average price realized by one of the leading wool houses for the wools sold during these two periods. The average price received for all the wools sold from June 1 to December 31, 1892, was 23·92 cents per pound. *This* covers a period before the McKinley tariff law was threatened with repeal. *The sales* by the same house from June 1 to December 31, 1893, under the shadow of *the proposed* Wilson bill, was 14·13 cents per pound, a decline of 40·92 per cent.

Before the McKinley tariff was assailed with repeal, and even so late as in March, 1893, and for several years previous to that date, the average London value of American wools was over 50 per cent below the average price under the McKinley law in the United States, and this decline of 40·92 per cent since June 1, 1893, marks the progress which American wools have made in their fall toward the free-wool level, and prices at this date are scarcely 10 per cent above the free-wool level. This is the first time since 1861 when American wool has failed to average double the price of foreign wool in the outside free-trade markets of the world.



FALL IN FOREIGN PRICES.

Free traders have been fond of drawing comparisons between the lower price of American wool under the McKinley law and prices current previous to 1860. It is true that previous to 1860 the clean-scoured value of Ohio XX was 80 cents, and its clean-scoured value under the McKinley law before it was menaced with repeal in the early part of 1893 was 70 cents, a decline of 12½ per cent. This fact has been given great prominence, but the advocates of this view have been ominously silent as to the 46-per-cent decline in London in wool of the same kind and quality during the same period. For some years previous to 1860 the London value of Australian clean-scoured wool similar to XX Ohio was 65 cents, but in 1893 its value was only 35 cents, a decline in the free-trade markets of the world of over 46 per cent, as against a decline under protection in the United States for wool of the same quality and condition of only 12½ per cent.

Further evidence of this fact, but exhibiting a still greater decline in foreign markets, is shown in the publication of a table by Messrs. George Wm. Bond & Co., of Boston, giving all kinds of colonial wools imported into England and America in 1860 and in 1893, showing a falling off in value in that period of over 51 per cent.

The importation of colonial wools into Europe and America at various tariff periods between 1860 and 1893, with approximate value per bale, was as follows:

Year.	Bales.	Average value per bale in English money.
1860	266,000	£25¾
1868	639,000	18¼
1869	657,000	13¾
1883	1,253,000	16¼
1890	1,699,000	14¼
1893	2,074,000	12½

A decline of 51½ per cent in thirty-three years.

OUR CONSUMPTION OF WOOL.

The total supply of raw wool for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1893, was about 532,000,000 pounds, in addition to the importation of about $38,000,000 worth of imported cloth at the foreign value. It is estimated that the wool required to produce these goods was over 3 pounds of unwashed wool per dollar's worth of goods. This would therefore make a total consumption by the American people of nearly 650,000.000 pounds of raw wool, equal to about 27 per cent of the world's supply. As the American people are only 5 per cent of the world's population, and

as they use 27 per cent of the world's production of wool, the per capita consumption is 9¾ pounds, which is the largest by any nation in the world. It is therefore not surprising that foreigners are jubilant over the prospect of being able to secure a greater share of the United States market, which advocates of the Wilson bill declare will be the result of its becoming a law, depriving the American producer of just so much of the American market as the bill proposes to give to the foreigner, for whatever additional employment is thus given to the foreigner, to that extent is the amount of work for our own people lessened.

Under the shadow of the Wilson bill American wool, for the first time since the panic of 1857, seeks a market in free-trade England.—(*From Justice, Bateman & Co.'s Wool Circular of February 1, 1894.*)

The Wilson tariff bill contains clauses postponing the repeal of the McKinley duties upon wool until August 2 and upon manufactures of wool until December 2, giving American manufacturers one more season before they will be compelled to face the competition of imported goods under greatly reduced schedules.

A degree of definiteness is thus given to manufacturers, showing them how far they may proceed under present conditions, and there are already signs of business improvement. The slight change for the better is the more noticeable when contrasted with the extreme depression of December and January, during which period there was shipped to Europe the first considerable lot of American wool exported since the panic of 1857. The shipment was pulled wool, taken largely from the skins of sheep which are being butchered in such multitudes in apprehension of unprofitableness of the sheep industry under "free wool." It is estimated that already 9,000,000 head, or about 20 per cent of the number on hand March 1, 1893, have already been slaughtered.

AMERICAN WOOL IN ENGLAND.

This shipment of American wool seeking a market in free-trade England emphasizes the prevailing depression here pending the passage of the Wilson bill, and is in marked contrast with the prosperous business being done so recently as March, 1893, before the McKinley tariff law was menaced by repeal. In the fiscal year ending June 30, 1893, the United States had not only used up the whole of the largest wool clip ever produced here, but in addition has consumed 32 per cent more foreign wool than was ever imported in any previous year. The woolen mills had been busy to their full capacity, while to-day the estimates of conservative journals show that 75 per cent of the American woolen machinery for a long time has been and is now idle. At present, instead of importing foreign wool to eke out the domestic supply, the imports of foreign wool have not only fallen off, but we have begun to export American wool to Europe to find a market on a free-wool basis.

Since the exhaustion of the surplus stock of woolen goods in consequence of the falling off in domestic production, as well as in the falling off of imports, an opportunity lasting for a few months may be given the mills for supplying the home market. Notwithstanding the greatly decreased consumption in consequence of the enforced idleness of the unemployed, some temporary improvement in the demand for wool is considered inevitable. Until the reduced rates go into effect foreign goods can not profitably compete with the home product, which latter in many instances has been cheapened by the labor cost of production and by an average decrease of 33⅓ per cent in the cost of raw material. The growing hope of the defeat of the Wilson bill in the Senate should cause a greater output of American manufactures, therefore resulting in a greater use for wool.

CHAPTER FOURTH.

THE RUINOUS EFFECT ON SHEEP HUSBANDRY OF (1) INADEQUATE WOOL DUTIES AND (2) OF THE THREAT OF FREE WOOL, AS SHOWN BY THE ABNORMAL NUMBER OF SHEEP SLAUGHTERED.

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1. *The evidence from the Boston American Wool and Cotton Reporter of March 1, 1894.*

2. *Statistics under the act of March 3, 1883.*

3. *Statistics of the effect of the threat of free wool in 1893.*

[*From the Boston American Wool and Cotton Reporter, March 1, 1894.*]

THE RUINOUS EFFECT OF THE THREAT OF FREE WOOL ON SHEEP HUSBANDRY IN THE UNITED STATES—SHEEP SLAUGHTERED BECAUSE OF THE BELIEF THAT FREE WOOL WOULD BE ENACTED BY THE FIFTY-THIRD CONGRESS.

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1. The EVIDENCE from THE AMERICAN WOOL AND COTTON REPORTER, *March* 1, 1894.

SHEEP SLAUGHTERED AND WOOL PULLED IN CHICAGO, ST. LOUIS, AND OTHER MARKETS.

INTERESTING FIGURES SHOWING RECEIPTS AND SHIPMENTS OF SHEEP FOR A SERIES OF YEARS.

For the purpose of ascertaining the number of sheep which are being slaughtered and the amount of pulled wool which is being produced in the principal markets of the country, the Reporter has instituted an inquiry among its correspondents at various points, and presents herewith interesting and significant statistics from Chicago, St. Louis, and other Western cities.

As an indication of the growth and present magnitude of Chicago, the greatest sheep market, and, in fact, the greatest live stock market of the world, we publish below figures showing the total receipts of sheep in that market for 28 years, or since 1865:

Total receipts of sheep in Chicago for 28 years.

1865, 5 days	1,433
1866	207,987
1867	180,888
1868	270,891
1869	340,072
1870	349,853
1871	315,053
1872	310,211
1873	291,734
1874	333,655
1875	418,948
1876	364,095
1877	310,240
1878	310,420
1879	325,119
1880	335,810
1881	493,624
1882	628,887
1883	749,917
1884	801,630
1885	1,003,598
1886	1,008,790
1887	1,360,862
1888	1,515,014
1889	1,832,469
1890	2,182,667
1891	2,153,537
1892	2,145,079
1893	3,031,174
Total	23,573,657

Total shipments of sheep from Chicago for 28 years.

1865	.....
1866	75,447
1867	50,275
1868	81,634
1869	108,690
1870	116,711
1871	135,084
1872	145,016
1873	115,235
1874	180,555
1875	243,604
1876	195,925
1877	155,354
1878	156,727
1879	159,298
1880	156,510
1881	253,938
1882	314,200
1883	374,463
1884	290,322
1885	260,277
1886	266,912
1887	445,094
1888	601,241
1889	711,315
1890	929,854
1891	688,205
1892	483,368
1893	442,865
Total	8,138,117

In order to arrive at the total number of sheep slaughtered in Chicago we have only to deduct from the total receipts the total shipments. Thus it appears that in 1892 there were slaughtered in Chicago 1,661,711 sheep, and in 1893, 2,588,309—an increase of 926,598 during the past twelve months.

But in order to examine closer into the movement of sheep at that point during the past twenty-four months, let us review the monthly receipts and shipments for 1892 and 1893:

Total receipts of sheep for 1892.

January	156,881
February	168,235
March	187,156
April	176,435
May	194,292
June	191,498
July	158,942
August	183,599
September	190,938
October	200,198
November	178,968
December	157,937
Total for year	2,145,079
Total for 1891	2,153,537

Total shipments of sheep from Chicago for 1892.

January	21,490
February	44,230
March	52,158
April	50,817
May	48,649
June	54,077
July	41,195
August	27,740
September	37,361
October	40,114
November	37,466
December	28,119
Total for year	483,368
Total for 1891	688,205

Total receipts of sheep at Chicago for 1893.

January	200,873
February	221,945
March	225,169
April	240,783
May	292,847
June	261,169
July	230,138
August	278,555
September	268,266
October	326,036
November	258,966
December	226,427
Total for year	3,031,174
Total for 1892	2,145,079

Total shipments of sheep from Chicago for 1893.

January	29,555
February	35,471
March	34,353
April	31,107
May	57,147
June	44,308
July	27,147
August	32,630
September	35,011
October	59,736
November	34,322
December	22,069
Total for year	442,865
Total for 1892	483,368

From the foregoing it will be seen that for the last three months of 1892 there were received in Chicago 539,103 sheep, and that there were shipped from that point 105,641 sheep, leaving 432,462 sheep which were slaughtered in that market. For the last three months of 1893 there were received in Chicago 711,429 sheep and there were shipped from that point 116,067 sheep, leaving 595,362 sheep which were slaughtered in that market, as against 432,462 sheep for the same period in 1892—an increase of 162,900 head. We present these latter figures because so many conflicting statements have been made of late regarding the enormous increase in the number of sheep which were being sent to the shambles.

For the past twenty-four months the total receipts of sheep in Chicago were 5,176,253; the total shipments were 926,233 head, leaving 4,250,020 head of sheep which were slaughtered in that market.

For the year of 1892 the total receipts of sheep in Chicago were 2,145,079 and for 1893 3,031,174—an increase of 886,095 head.

The production of pulled wool has, of course, increased correspondingly with the increase in the number of sheep slaughtered, and from the best information we have thus far received there has been pulled during the past twenty-four months 6,200,000 pounds of wool. The shipment of pelts to Eastern pullers has been large during the past two years, and during the past three months the shipments into Canada have been of considerable importance.

ST. LOUIS.

Receipts and shipments of sheep—Pulled-wool product.

Our St. Louis correspondent furnishes us the following figures showing the receipts and shipments of sheep from that market for the twenty-four months ending December 31, 1893:

St. Louis receipts and shipments of sheep for 1892 and 1893.

	Receipts.		Shipments.*	
	1892.	1893.	1892.	1893.
January	12,459	13,463	2,818	5,440
February	8,902	12,895	1,509	3,340
March	12,605	12,027	2,910	6,647
April	26,152	31,417	15,171	17,643
May	42,649	76,974	33,750	48,523
June	63,753	79,330	46,281	74,326
July	52,816	42,380	47,304	33,160
August	52,083	30,160	36,774	12,444
September	34,040	30,935	22,870	11,271
October	32,771	28,913	21,609	8,223
November	19,005	22,799	7,759	5,067
December	19,687	16,432	9,286	5,392
Total	376,922	397,725	248,035	231,476

* The difference between receipts and shipments were slaughtered here.

In regard to pulled wool here, our pullers buy in the country, also in Chicago, Kansas City, and elsewhere. The pelts from sheep killed here form only a small part of their stock. I give a careful estimate according to capacity and amounts pulled by the different pullers as follows: Estimated amount of wool pulled here in 1892, 2,200,000 pounds; estimated amount of wool pulled here in 1893, 2,800,000 pounds.

The pullers at present are not crowding their capacity, though most of them are fairly busy. Sheep pelts are cheaper than ever before, though the least sale and movement of wool is felt quickly and they rise much faster than does the wool or pickled stock when the market shows any improvement whatever. There is probably 15 per cent more wool being pulled here in 1894 than was the case a year ago; but I can not be exact about this year as yet.

Yours, truly,

X.

Our Minneapolis correspondent writes as follows:

MINNEAPOLIS, MINN, *February 22, 1894.*

Editor of Wool and Cotton Reporter:

In regard to the number of sheep killed in St. Paul and Minneapolis during each month, would say that I can not give you the exact number, because the slaughtering business is not concentrated in one place as it is in Chicago, Omaha, and Kansas City, but is handled by a good many different people. The number of sheep killed here is not as many as you would expect from the population of the two cities, which is nearly 400,000, because dressed mutton is shipped up here with dressed beef in refrigerator cars from five or six other slaughtering centers, and what is shipped in here takes the place of what would otherwise be killed. As a rough estimate should think that the number killed in the two cities each month is about 7,000. Had the slaughtering business been located at a single central point between Minneapolis and St. Paul we would kill our own beef instead of getting it from other slaughtering points. The slaughtering houses have all worked against each other until the business is nearly killed. To supply our tanneries we depend on buying sheep pelts principally in Chicago, St. Louis, Kansas City, and Omaha. Would say that the quantity of pulled wool here is somewhat larger this year than last. Some say that on account of the scare and the hard times the sheep are being slaughtered; but that is not wholly the case.

Yours, truly, X.

PITTSBURG AND ALLEGHENY.

ALLEGHENY, PA., *February 20, 1894.*

Editor of Wool and Cotton Reporter:

The amount of pelts pulled here is about 1,000 daily, or about 3,000 pounds of wool for present take-off. This is about the same number that has been pulled for some years past. But while the usual amount is being pulled at present there was probably not over half this number pulled during the latter part of 1893.

Yours, truly, X.

2. *The effect of reduced duties by the act of 1883.*

The statistics given show that in the six years 1884–1889, both inclusive, *under the reduced wool tariff*, the average receipts of sheep for slaughter and shipment in Chicago were 1,253,727.

Under the better protective wool tariff of 1867 the average receipts at Chicago for the six years 1878–1883, both inclusive, were only 473,963.

3. *The effect of the threat of free wool by the election of Mr. Cleveland President in 1892.*

The number of sheep had largely increased, especially west of the Mississippi River since 1878. This fact and the increase of population in Chicago would naturally increase the receipts of sheep.

The shipments to Chicago in the year 1892 were 2,145,079, but with the impending threat of free wool in 1893 the shipments in that year increased to 3,031,174.

CHAPTER FIFTH.

[Compiled by William Lawrence.]

FREE WOOL CONDEMNED BY PUBLIC SENTIMENT—FACTS AND ARGUMENTS AGAINST FREE WOOL—THE NEW YORK TRIBUNE [REPUBLICAN] ON THE SUBJECT—DEMOCRATIC NEWSPAPERS ON THE SUBJECT.

I. AN ARRAY OF FACTS AND ARGUMENTS FROM THE NEW YORK TRIBUNE OF JANUARY 17, 1894.
II. THE OPINION OF THE CLEVELAND PLAIN DEALER [DEMOCRATIC] OF JANUARY 27, 1894.
III. FACTS AS TO EXPORTS OF AMERICAN WOOL—
(1) *From the New York Evening Telegram of January 19, 1894.*
(2) *The beneficial effect of the McKinley law.*
(3) *How England treated the exporters of wool. The offense of "Owling."*
IV. HOWLAND CROFT, SONS & CO., MANUFACTURERS, CAMDEN, N. J., ANSWER QUESTIONS PROPOUNDED BY THE COMMITTEE ON FINANCE OF THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.
V. OREGON AGAINST FREE WOOL.
VI. CALIFORNIA AGAINST FREE WOOL.
VII. ELEVEN HUNDRED WOOL MANUFACTURERS in mass meeting in New York City, January 10, 1894, protest against free wool.

[From the New York Weekly Tribune, Wednesday, January 17, 1894.]

I. FREE WOOL MEANS RUIN—ITS EFFECT UPON THE GREAT SHEEP INDUSTRY GRAPHICALLY DESCRIBED—A BUSINESS WHICH PUTS MILLIONS OF DOLLARS YEARLY INTO THE POCKETS OF AMERICAN FARMERS WOULD BE SWEPT AWAY BY THIS PROVISION OF THE WILSON BILL—A FLOOD OF PROTESTS AGAINST IT.

WASHINGTON, *January 11, 1894.*

A hint to the opponents of the Wilson bill who desire to have their protests brought to the attention of Congress, as a body, and made fully effective, will not be out of place. Every petition, memorial, and protest should be addressed to the Senate and House of Representatives. One copy should be sent to a Senator and another to a member of the House. All such papers will be officially noted in the journals of the two branches and in the Congressional Record, and thereby become a part of the official records of Congress. This precaution is by no means unnecessary. Its observance, however, ought not to interfere with written or personal appeals to Senators and Representatives, comparatively few of whom will be likely to ignore them.

MORE THAN 500 PROTESTS SENT IN.

When the members of the minority framed their objections to the bill they had received more than 500 protests from thirty-five States and Territories against the placing of wool on the free list, showing the

languishing condition of the woolgrowing industry on account of the threat to do so, and the probable effect if it should be executed. Of course these protests will be more effective after they shall have been noted in the Congressional Record, where Senators and Representatives will be sure to see them. The mere fact that more than 500 protests against a single provision of the bill have been received by members of the minority of the committee is a strong indication, if not actual evidence, of the fact that many hundreds of other protests have been received by Democrats as well as Republican members of the committee against other provisions, as well as against the bill itself.

In placing wool on the free list the majority has disregarded and treated with cool contempt not only the appeals and protests of the flock-owners, whose interests are placed in jeopardy, but the opinions of an overwhelming majority of the woolen manufacturers of the United States, in spite of the assertion of Mr. Latzko, the Austrian woolen manufacturer, to the contrary. Even the American carpet manufacturers, who are the largest consumers of foreign wool, do not demand or favor the repeal of the duties. In its report the majority remarks that "it is not deemed necessary to attempt a restatement of the reasons" for placing wool on the free list, because in recent years the House in two Congresses "has passed laws" to that effect. It adds:

> It is enough to say that the tariff upon wool, while bringing no real benefit to the American woolgrower, least of all to the American farmer, who in any balancing of accounts must see that he yearly pays out a good dollar for ever doubtful dime he may receive under its operation, has disastrously hampered our manufacturing industry and made cruel and relentless war upon the health, the comfort, and the productive energy of the American people.

This is the curt answer which the majority of the committee returns to the appeals of a million American citizens who are engaged in the wool-growing industry and were the owners of 47,273,553 sheep when the blight of a Democratic free trade victory fell upon them. It is not an argument, but a bald assertion; not only unsupported by facts, but refuted by a multitude of witnesses whose written and personal testimony has been laid before members of the committee.

THE MINORITY'S ARRAY OF FACTS.

The minority had dealt with this subject in a different manner, and has submitted unanswerable arguments, backed by an impregnable array of facts in support of the proposition that "nothing short of the destruction of this important industry can be counted on as the consequence of placing both wool and mutton on the free list." The minority shows that "during the past year, owing to the impending threat of free wool and radical reductions in the duties on woolen goods, the prices of domestic wools of all descriptions have fallen from 30 to 50 per cent below the prices that prevailed a year ago. Even at these figures there has been little market for wool, and many farmers have still on their hands this season's clips, which at this time last year were being rapidly converted into goods by mills which now stand idle. The value of the sheep has fallen equally with the value of their clip. The depreciation in the value of this species of agricultural property from the two sources may be conservatively stated at $50,000,000.

In support of this contention, the minority submits the testimony of woolgrowers and wool-buyers in the State of Wyoming, who, among *other things*, say:

> *One* year ago wool netted us here from 12 cents to 14 cents, while this year it has *netted* us only from 6 to 8 cents, making a shrinkage of almost 50 per cent caused by

prospective free trade. Our sheep, which sold one year ago for $3 to $4 per head, this year are selling for only $2 to $2.25 per head. Should wool be placed on the free list, we must take London prices and compete with all foreign wools of same grade, with all the advantages of growing as above stated to our disadvantage.

SHEEP RAISERS ALMOST PANIC STRICKEN.

The testimony of prominent woolgrowers in the State of Washington is also cited as follows:

We have only 100,000 sheep in this county, but in four or five counties south of us in eastern Oregon there are over 1,000,000 sheep. We are now just getting returns from our wool shipped to Eastern markets last spring, which brought only 4 to 7 cents net. The same wool sold last year at 12 to 15 cents at home. Our freights to Boston are 2 cents per pound, so we can not compete with Australian wool, with ocean freights at one-half cent per pound. Last year the price of our sheep was $2.50 to $3; at present the price is only $1 to $1.25 per head, and the sheep men are almost panic stricken, their creditors forcing them to sell or ship to Chicago (which is unusual at this season of the year), and only getting $1 per head clear. But we are still struggling and trying to hold out, hoping that Congress will let us alone. If there is no change next spring in prices we will have to throw up the business, for 5 or 6 cents for wool and $1 for sheep will not pay the expenses. We all agree that we can not raise wool on the coast for less than last year's prices, 12 cents to 14 cents per pound, unless we have free-trade prices in all commodities and free-trade wages. All woolgrowers of both porties here condemn free wool. We think it will ruin our business to bring in foreign wools, for until this year the price in Australia was only about one-half the price in the United States. We deny the assertion of some demagogues that we can not raise good wool in the United States, for we have all the variety of soil and climate, and the finest breeds of sheep. We export fine rams from Vermont to Australia.

Louis Scheuck, manager during the last twenty years of the Seymour, (Ind.) Woolen Mills—"an eight-set (all-wool) woolen mill"—and also a woolgrower of thirty years' experience, writes under date of November 21:

When, in October, 1892, I tried to buy 100 sheep and lambs to stock one of my farms, I could not buy good ewes at less than $5 a head; I bought them this year in October at $2.25. As our production of woolens is mostly sold to western farmers, we experienced a large decrease in demand for it on account of their lessened ability to buy our wares because of the decreased price they are getting for their wool. We admit that we are getting wool cheaper under prospective tariff reduction, and will for a year or two probably, should the tariff be materially reduced; but as the domestic clips would be greatly lessened, we would become to a great extent dependent on foreign supplies, which are generally manipulated by a few importing houses in the East, who would, in the nature of things, take advantage of our necessity.

Here is an extract from the testimony of Frank J. Hegart, an Idaho woolgrower, who owns 2,000 sheep:

The contrast between our personal business this year as compared with last year is very striking. The Botany Worsted Mills, of Passaic, N. J., bought our wool in 1892, paying therefor prices that meant 16 cents per pound at our shipping point on the Utah and Northern Railroad in Idaho. This year Fred Kuhn, buyer for these same mills, offered 8 cents per pound for the same wools, and declared them superior to last year's clip, and stated that his only reason for so bearing down the price this year was a fear of the removal of the wool tariff. Last year we sold to Swift & Co., of Chicago, 4,000 head of choice wether lambs, delivered at the railroad in Idaho at $2.17½ per head, a very good figure, as the stock was choice. This year we were offered $1.25 per head for the same stuff. Last year we were offered $3.25 per head for prime large yearling wethers; this year we are offered $1.50 for better stock. Last year we sold and bought mixed bands of ewes and lambs at $2.50 to $2.75 per head; now they are worth $1.25 to $1.50 per head. Such a reversal of conditions has been disastrous.

Under date of November 29, John Paw, of Salem, Ohio, writes:

On account of this threatened and pledged legislation, manufacturers have bought what domestic wool has been sold of the 1893 clip at an average price of 10 cents per pound less than in 1892. Ohio wool brought in 1892 from 25 to 30 cents per pound; this year the same wool brought from 16 to 22 cents per pound. This price is for brook-washed wool *of medium quality*, and with free wool there will be a further *decline in price.*

PRICES REDUCED MORE THAN 50 PER CENT.

Henry Goke, of Sapello, N. Mex., writes as follows under date of November 29:

I have been engaged in sheep-raising in New Mexico for twenty-five years, and have followed it closely, and in that time I have succeeded in working my herd up to about 15,000 head. My sheep I regarded twelve months ago as worth $2 per head, and I could have sold them at that price, but I could not to-day realize $1 per head for them. My annual clip of wool now aggregates about 60,000 pounds. I sold my wool a year ago for 17½ cents, but I have not yet sold my clip for this year, as I have been hoping that the price would improve. The best offer I have been able to get so far is 8½ cents per pound. Thus you can see what prospective free trade is doing for me, and if the above may be taken as indicating the value of sheep and wool under free trade, you can readily see that it would utterly ruin the business in this country. My case may be taken, and can safely be taken, as representing the business in this section. As an example, I will state that a band of 1,500 head of mutton wethers was sold here a few weeks ago for $2 per head, and the party who sold them had competition on them too, but this was the very best price he could get for them. Wethers from the same herd sold a year ago for $3.50 per head. Spring lambs sold twelve months ago at from $1.25 to $1.50 per head, but they will not bring more than 75 cents per head now, and in fact they are being sold at this price. Our present rate on wool from here to Philadelphia is $2.15 per 100 pounds, and I find upon inquiry that the rate from London to Philadelphia is only 25 cents per 100 pounds, and in this respect we are also heavily handicapped.

In conclusion, Mr. Goke says:

I have always been a Democrat, and have been a worker for the party, but if they persist in their endeavors to destroy my best interests and those of the country in which I reside, I shall certainly take as active a part in opposing them as I have heretofore taken in helping them.

SLAUGHTERING THEIR SHEEP.

From twenty-nine other States and Territories besides those mentioned have come protests from woolgrowers bearing testimony as strong as that which has been quoted. It has been accompanied by other testimony equally strong, showing that sheep-owners everywhere, frightened by the prospect of free wool, are sending their sheep to the shambles whenever it is practicable to do so. Thus Mr. Hegart, of Beaver Canyon, Idaho, writes:

The normal consumption of mutton in the Chicago market is about 65,000 head per week. This year, all summer long and all the fall, mutton, feeders, and stock sheep, were going into that market at the rate of 500,000 head per month, at a decline in prices of at least 60 per cent for the best grades and from 75 to 80 per cent for inferior stuff.

He also says that some of the railroads have refused to transport sheep without prepayment of freight, because it was feared that the sheep would not sell for enough in the great markets to cover freight charges. On this point the minority of the committee says:

The farmers understand that the present wool market, demoralized and unprecedented as it is, is not yet down to a free-wool basis. Consequently there has been a rush to get out of the business before the bottom is reached. Sheep have been sent to the shambles faster than the markets could absorb them. From all sections of the United States where there has been any considerable pursuit of sheep husbandry come reports that fattening for the market is now practically universal. Authentic instances have come to the knowledge of the minority where the number of sheep in certain counties in Ohio, Michigan and other States has been reduced one-half, and the market reports indicate that for the country at large the increase in the number slaughtered has been over 100 per cent. The losses already entailed upon our farmers and the losses yet to come have been and will be the more cruel and the harder to bear because they have been so widely distributed among men of small means accustomed to rely upon the proceeds from their flocks for the ready cash required for their harvesting expenses.

The minority calls attention to the high cost of transportation of wool from the distant Western States and Territories to the Atlantic seaboard, as compared with the cost from London or Antwerp to the same markets, and says:

The moment wool becomes free the growers of wool beyond the Mississippi River would be excluded from our Atlantic manufacturing towns by this difference in freight rates, even if the cost of growing were the same. One serious effect of this upon manufacturing should not escape notice. Scattered throughout our Western States and to some extent in the South, are many woolen mills hitherto prosperous, which supply the local markets for cloths, flannels, blankets, etc., and depend exclusively upon the wool grown in their immediate neighborhood for their raw material. When this wool ceases to be grown these manufacturers must look to foreign sources for their supplies; that is to say, they must pay the inland freights upon their wool at rates which will destroy their power to compete with Eastern manufacturers, who save these freights. Many millions of dollars are invested in these Western mills; they are the basis of the prosperity of many thriving towns and villages. They will be injured quite as much by the provision to put wool on the free list as by the reduction in the duty on woolen goods.

AN ENORMOUS LOSS TO FARMERS.

After a patient and thorough investigation and fair consideration of all the facts, the minority of the committee concludes that—

Whatever of sheep husbandry will remain in this country under free wool will be a purely mutton industry, of which wool will be a by product. The splendid flocks which thirty years of adequate protection have developed will disappear. This great industry, from which have annually come 300,000,000 pounds of American wool for the clothing of American people, will be turned over to foreign nations waiting to supersede us. The $60,000,000 to $75,000,000 which has annually accrued to our farmers because of it will go henceforth to others, and one of the most valuable diversifications of our agricultural industry will have been permanently lost.

This conclusion does not essentially differ from that reached by an eminent "tariff reformer," whom Chairman Wilson probably holds in higher esteem as an authority on economic subjects than he does Mr. Burrows, of Michigan, who, it is understood, prepared the review of the proposed schedule of wool and woolens in behalf of the minority of the committee. In the October number of "The Quarterly Journal of Economics," Prof. F. W. Taussig discusses the duties on wool and woolens, and makes two important admissions concerning the probable effect of free wool upon the American wool-growing industry. One is that "growers of fine wool (in the United States) would find the lower price to which they would have to submit hard, and might be compelled to slaughter their sheep and leave the field." The other is that the fall in the prices of medium wools on account of a removal of the duty "would increase the tendency to substitute tillage for pasture in those regions where tillage is possible, and to keep sheep for mutton rather than for wool."

Prof. Taussig's frank admissions offer a striking contrast to this expression found in the report of the majority of the Ways and Means Committee: "With free wool we anticipate a steadier and better market for the American woolgrower." Neither Prof. Taussig nor the American woolgrower seems to anticipate any such result, and the minority of the committee after thorough investigation heartily agrees with them on this point.

[Cleveland Plain Dealer (Democratic), January 27, 1894.]

II. POPULIST OR DEMOCRAT?

The House of Representatives, which was elected on a Democratic platform, and which was pledged by all honor that could exist between Representatives and the people who elected them, was pledged to principles of the Democratic party, as

enunciated in the platform of 1892. Already, a majority claiming to be Democrats, but acting as if they were Populists, have agreed to override the instructions of the platform to enact a revenue tariff bill, and are trying to place a bastard bill on the Democratic doorstep.

They have placed WOOL, sugar, coal, and iron ore on the "free list," totally ignoring the idea of tariff for revenue. These radicals have leaned over to the demands of the Populists, call themselves free traders, and are posing under the sacred name of Democracy.

The question is soon to be asked, are these men Democrats or Populists? are they going to deliver so much of the Democratic party as will follow them into the ranks of the Populists, or are they to *stop in their mad career* and come back with the *old-time honored principles of Democracy*, to the plain and distinct instruction of the platform, and enact a tariff bill whose purpose *shall be for revenue?* Can it be that we must apply to them the old adage, "Whom the gods wish to destroy, they first make mad?" Can it be that the great Democracy of this country, the friends of the people, the friends of equity, justice, and fair dealing, equal taxation and equal rights, are to prove recreant to the trust that has been imposed upon them? Can it be that these men to whom the country looked FOR REFORM, and not for DESTRUCTION OF THE TARIFF, will enact a law which in one-half is a protective tariff and in the other is free trade? Can it be that these men from whom so much was expected are going to be the DESTROYERS OF ONE-HALF OF THE GREAT INDUSTRIES, for the purpose, not of obtaining revenue, but for the purpose of helping the manufacturers, as they claim, at THE EXPENSE OF THE PRODUCERS OF WHAT THEY CLAIM TO BE RAW MATERIALS, SUCH AS ORE, LUMBER, AND WOOL? "Forbid it, Almighty God." Is it right to force by law ONE-HALF OF THE PEOPLE WHO REPRESENT THESE GREAT INDUSTRIES to pay enhanced prices to manufacturers, while the producers are to furnish these manufacturers, at English prices, the very materials on which their success and prosperity must depend? Away with such equity, such justice, and such legislation.

The Wilson bill is full of this kind of iniquity. The very foundation principles of a tariff for revenue are ignored and in their place are favoritism, sectionalism, and unrighteous discrimination.

We have not so judged the Democratic party, and we do not so now judge the Democratic party. We expect better things of it, and they will come before the life of this Congress expires. The Democracy will not be driven into the corrals of the Populist or rounded up with them for slaughter by Republicans."

[Plain Dealer, Thursday, March 1, 1894.]

HONEST TAXES.

When a protective tariff is placed on carpets, clothes, and blankets it offers a premium on shoddy goods. Old rags may be ground up, worked over in various ways and felted together and sold as new goods in coats and blankets. They are woolen goods, although they are shoddy, and the tariff keeps out cheaper all-wool and all new-wool goods.

Thus the tariff is a stimulus to fraud. Does it look right to protect shoddy goods and keep wool, which is always new and honest material, free and unprotected?

How does it look in the Wilson bill? How does it look as a Democratic measure? We think it looks dishonest and that it is not defensible. We prefer to have the wool which is raised in Australia by English labor and brought to America by English ships, pay a tariff just as the English coats and carpets have to pay.

The lead trust of New York, in the Wilson bill, have white lead protected 30 per cent, and when mixed with oil they have it protected 35 per cent. They can mix zinc and whiting with lead and make a shoddy lead which they can sell to the miners and the farmers at a great profit; but the lead ore from Australia, mined by English miners and brought here in English ships, is permitted, if mixed with a few ounces of silver ore, to come in free. The ore is honest, is never other than just what nature made it, but it is not protected. The miners must pay the lead trust for white lead 35 per cent profit, legislated into their pockets by the Wilson bill, and furnish the ore from which the white lead is made free of duty. How does that look to a miner when he is called on to vote for Congressman or Senator?

To correct these unjust discriminations, we are showing up the present Wilson bill. We urge the Senate to correct the bill so as not to leave it a bill for helping trusts and monopolists. We demand that it be a whole-souled revenue bill with incidental protection. Have you heard a single trust kick against it? Why should they? They get wool, ore, and lumber free, and are protected on an average of 30.66 per cent.

III. Exports of American Wools.

[From The Evening Telegraph, Philadelphia, January 19, 1894.]

THE FIRST SINCE 1857—THE SOUTHWARK CARRIES 5,000 POUNDS OF AMERICAN WOOL TO FREE-TRADE ENGLAND—NO PRICES TO BE HAD AT HOME.

The new steamer of the American Line service between Philadelphia and Liverpool, the *Southwark*, went to sea at 11 o'clock last night.

In her hold, consigned to Francis Willey, Bradford, England, were 5,000 pounds of home-grown, brushed, super pulled wool, the first important shipment thither of American wool since 1857. The sender of the wool is Frank Edwards, of Nos. 32 and 34 Strawberry street.

This wool, it is reported, goes to Europe to find a market; there is none here, albeit at a decline of 40 per cent. American manufacturers do not see their way clear to try it even at free-trade prices. Wool of that grade was offered for sale here at 20 cents per pound in the grease, and found no buyers. One manufacturer, who declined to purchase, said to-day that even under these conditions he could not run his mill profitably.

Theodore Justice, speaking of the significance of the *Southwark's* consignment, said this afternoon:

On March 1, when President Harrison was in the White House, this wool was selling freely at 35 cents per pound. The supply of it was inadequate. The mills were busy, and wanted it faster than it was produced. To-day the fear of the prospect of the disastrous consequences of the Wilson bill has closed so many mills as to destroy the market for this wool. Three-fourths of the woolen mills are shut up. A few of the mills recently closed have started np at a reduction of 20 per cent in wages, making goods for which they have no orders whatever, the object of the resumption being to hold together their organization and to give to their help employment which will carry them through the winter. One concern that attempthd to resume found goods previously made and delivered being returned in such large quantities, under apprehension of the Wilson bill's passage, that they were compelled to close their mill; they could not accumulate stock on top of the large amount previously sold, but returned. This mill-owner is supporting from his own pocket a number of families utterly without supplies of coal and food.

Brushed pulled wool contains about 20 per cent of natural oil. On the 1st of March it sold for 35 cents per pound in the grease, or 43¾ cents per pound scoured clean to make it into cloth. The London value of this wool scoured clean is 25 cents, or 20 cents in the grease. And, as it will cost 2 cents per pound to send it to England, it will net the shipper 18 cents per pound in the grease for such brushed pulled wool as sold here for 35 cents per pound so recently as the 1st of March, when the assault on the McKinley bill was only contemplated, and had not yet taken definite shape.

The farmers of Pennsylvania are selling lean "stock" sheep at 25 cents per head that brought $2 per head one year ago. These animals are being slaughtered for the pelt, the wool from which has to find a market in Europe; the carcasses are being fed to the hogs. The farmers can better afford to give their sheep away for nothing than to fatten them for the cash price of the grain it would take to feed them, for the reason that they can get more money now cash down for the grain than they could get for the wool into which the grain would be converted, as hitherto, six months hence. Hon. John McDowell, formerly president of the Pennsylvania Wool-growers' Association, among others, is authority for this statement.

[2.—From the Wool Circular of Justice Bateman & Co., February 1, 1894.]

The Wilson tariff bill contains clauses postponing the repeal of the McKinley duties upon wool until August 2 and upon manufactures of wool until December 2, giving American manufacturers one more season before they will be compelled to face the competition of imported goods under greatly reduced schedules.

A degree of definiteness is thus given to manufacturers, showing them how far they may proceed under present conditions, and there are already signs of business improvement. The slight change for the better is the more noticeable when contrasted with

the extreme depression of December and January, during which period there was shipped to Europe the first considerable lot of American wool exported since the panic of 1857. This shipment was pulled wool, taken largely from the skins of sheep which are being butchered in such multitudes in apprehension of unprofitableness of the sheep industry under "free wool." It is estimated that already 9,000,000 head, or about 20 per cent of the number on hand March 1, 1893, have already been slaughtered.

This shipment of American wool seeking a market in free-trade England emphasizes the prevailing depression here pending the passage of the Wilson bill, and is in marked contrast with the prosperous business being done so recently as March, 1893, before the McKinley tariff law was menaced by repeal.

BENEFICIAL EFFECT OF THE M'KINLEY LAW.

In the fiscal year ending June 30, 1893, the United States had not only used up the whole of the largest wool clip ever produced here, but in addition has consumed 32 per cent more foreign wool than was ever imported in any previous year. The woolen mills had been busy to their full capacity, while to-day the estimates of conservative journals show that 75 per cent of the American woolen machinery for a long time has been and is now idle. At present, instead of importing foreign wool to eke out the domestic supply, the imports of foreign wool have not only fallen off, but we have begun to export American wool to Europe to find a market on a free-wool basis.

Since the exhaustion of the surplus stock of woolen goods in consequence of the falling off in domestic production, as well as in the falling off of imports, an opportunity lasting for a few months may be given the mills for supplying the home market. Notwithstanding the greatly decreased consumption in consequence of the enforced idleness of the unemployed, some temporary improvement in the demand for wool is considered inevitable.

Until the reduced rates go into effect foreign goods can not profitably compete with the home product, which latter in many instances has been cheapened by the labor cost of production and by an average decrease of 33⅓ per cent in the cost of raw material. The growing hope of the defeat of the Wilson bill in the Senate should cause a greater output of American manufactures, therefore resulting in a greater use for wool. As yet manufacturers see but small grounds for hopefulness; but, while some mills are closing down, more of them have resumed work, and there is to this extent some betterment in the situation. The postponement of the reduced duties until December next lessens the apprehension caused by the large amount of American wool to be carried into the new clip, and to this extent the market is a shade steadier. While there is apparently but slender hope of any important advance in prices, there is a growing belief that the bulk of the old wool will still find its way into the consumer's hands before the bulk of the new clip arrives, if it is not held above the market.

3. How England treated exports of wool.

In volume 4, p. 154, of Blackstone's Commentaries on the Laws of England, it is said:

Owling is the offense of transporting wool or sheep out of this Kingdom to the detriment of its staple manufacture. This was forbidden at common law, and more particularly by statute 11, Edw. 3, c. 1, when the importance of our woolen manufacture was first attended to, and there are now many later statutes relating to this offense, the most useful and principal of which are those enacted in the reign of Queen Elizabeth and since. The statute 8, Eliz., s. 3, makes the transportation of live sheep, or embarking them on board any ship for the first offense, forfeiture of goods and imprisonment for a year, etc., etc.

[From Traffic, Philadelphia, Pa., February, 1894.]

IV. THE QUERIES ANSWERED—REPLIES TO THE CIRCULAR LETTER OF THE SENATE FINANCE COMMITTEE—VALUABLE AND INTERESTING INFORMATION FURNISHED BY A LEADING MANUFACTURER OF FINE WORSTED YARNS.

We give below the replies made by one of the most prominent textile concerns in the United States to the interrogatories contained in *the circular* letter sent out by the Senate Finance Committee to manu-

facturers broadcast throughout the land, in place of giving a hearing to the representatives of the principal American industries. What will become of the tons of mail sent in reply is very hard to tell.

That the subcommittee, even if so inclined, will have an opportunity of giving any consideration to the "valuable statistics and other data" contained in the replies furnished, in the time allotted to that body, is a matter of utter impossibility. The communications sent in answer to the questions will be likely to be stacked up and then find their way unopened to the waste-paper vaults. Traffic therefore offers its columns to such manufacturers, producers, merchants, and other business men as do not wish to have their labor in vain.

ANSWERS TO THE QUESTIONS PROPOUNDED TO MANUFACTURERS.

Q. 1. State name of corporation, firm, or individual, and character of manufacture.

A. Howland Croft, Sons & Co., manufacturers of fine worsted yarns.

Q. 2. State location of plant.

A. Broadway and Jefferson streets, Camden, N. J.

Q. 3. What amount of capital invested?

A. Capital invested January 1, 1892, $500,000.

Q. 4. When was the industry established?

A. Industry was established in 1880.

Q. 5. State the amount of production, kinds, and value of articles manufactured annually since the establishment of your industry; description, value, and quantity for each year.

A. In 1880, our first year in business, we produced 97,097 pounds of worsted yarns valued at $142,900.48. In 1892 our production had increased to 792,569 pounds, valued at $852,897.64. In 1893 the production fell off fully 40 per cent, while so far this year we have not made a pound of yarn.

Q. 6. Have you at any time during the past two years been running less than full time, and, if so, when and why?

A. During 1892 we run full time, and the help received more wages and were more steadily employed than ever before. For the first five months of 1893 we made full time. Since about June 1, 1893, up to about the first of the present year we have run on short time, making from three to four days per week, with only part of the help and machinery employed, and during the last-mentioned period we were entirely closed down for about eight weeks, something that has not occurred before since we have been in business. The only cause of it is the expected radical change in our industrial system intended to be made by the present administration.

Q. 7. What rate of *ad valorem* (or specific) duty is necessary to place domestic products on an equal footing with foreign producers, and your reasons why?

A. We can not tell what rate, as it all depends how low we can get the wages down here. It wants to be considerably higher than what the Wilson bill, as passed by the House, places it.

Q. 8. If the rate of duty upon your class of manufacture were reduced one-third what reduction in cost of production would be necessary?

A. It would be necessary that wages and supplies should come down fully one-third, as the duty practically amounts to the difference in the wages and cost of supplies paid by us and paid by our European competitors.

Q. 9. Please state the domestic wholesale price of your goods in 1884, 1890, and 1892, and at the date of your answer?

A. Our standard yarn is $\frac{2}{40}$ fine white, made from the finest Australian and domestic wools, and the average price during 1884 was $1.35 per pound; during 1890, $1.18; during 1892, $1.15, and at present it is 92¼ cents.

Q. 10. To your knowledge has there been an increased competition in your line of manufactures, either foreign or domestic during the past four years?

A. Yes, both foreign and domestic, but more domestic than foreign. The foreign manufacturers have reduced their prices to such a point as to enable them to bring in their goods, while the domestic competition has increased by new mills, and old ones increasing their capacity.

Q. 11. Do you desire a specific or an *ad valorem* duty, and why?

A. We certainly desire a specify duty in preference to an *ad valorem*. *Ad valorem* duties have a tendency to cause undervaluations, so that in many cases the duty collected is much less than it should be, and thus places the domestic manufacturer at a disadvantage.

Q. 12. Are you manufacturing or producing as many goods or commodities as you were in 1892, and if not, why not?

A. We are not making any goods at present for the reason as stated in the latter part of our answer to question 6.

Q. 13. What has been the tendency of wages during the past twelve months?

A. The tendency has been towards lower wages, but particularly so during the last six months.

Q. 14. If possible, will you give an estimate of the exact cost of living of the families of two or more of your skilled workmen, specifying as near as may be items of expenditure?

A. We can not estimate the exact cost of living, but can say that people in our employ, who have come from Europe, live much better here and enjoy more comforts than they did in the old country.

Q. 15. Have you any difficulty in construing the existing law in regard to importations of the class of articles you produce, and have you any suggestions to make?

A. No; the McKinley law is satisfactory.

Q. 16. Has the price of living in your locality increased or decreased during the past four years, and to what extent?

A. The price of living has decreased, but to what extent we can not say.

Q. 17. What in your opinion is the cause of the present depression in trade, and what would be your remedy to correct it?

A. The whole cause of the present depression, in our opinion, is the well-known intention of the present administration to overthrow the protective tariff and put us on a free-trade basis. Kick the bill out entirely and a different state of affairs would exist in twenty-four hours.

Q. 18. What component materials of your manufacture are, to you, raw materials?

A. Wool is our raw material.

Q. 19. Are the goods you manufacture luxuries or necessities?

A. Necessities.

Q. 20. What rate of interest are you compelled to pay on loans?

A. The rate of interest is about 6 per cent.

Q. 22. What proportion of skilled labor do you employ?

A. The labor we employ is more or less skilled according to what department they work in.

Q. 23. How do you propose to meet any reduction of duty on the goods you manufacture?

A. As most all other costs of manufacture have been brought down to the lowest possible point, a reduction of duty on the goods we manufacture, will have to be met wholly by a reduction in wages.

Q. 24. Give the number of men, women, and children employed, and state the wages you pay for ordinary and skilled labor.

A. We employ about 450 hands—175 men, 150 women, and balance children. Wages of men for ordinary labor, average about $8; for the skilled labor, about $15. Women, mostly skilled, will average about $5 per week and the children $3 to $4 per week.

Q. 25. How many hours per week are they employed?

A. When running full time we make 60 hours per week.

Q. 26. Do foreign articles of like kind enter into competition, and to what extent?

A. Foreign yarns do enter into competition, but, if the Wilson bill is passed, it will be a question as to whether we can run in competition with them or not, with the chances of not being able to run at all.

Q. 27. What proportion of your manufacture is exported, and do you realize a less price therefrom than from domestic consumption?

A. We dont export any.

Q. 28. Has the cost of manufacture increased or decreased since 1883, and to what extent?

A. The census of 1890 will give this information fully.

Q. 29. Has the increase or decrease been in materials or labor?

A. The census of 1890 will give this information fully.

Q. 30. Have your selling prices increased or decreased since 1890?

A. Selling price has decreased since 1890 fully 20 per cent.

Q. 31. What amount of the agricultural production of the country is consumed in your manufacture, or through it, indirectly or directly, and what amount of other domestic productions?

A. In 1892 we consumed 1,268,324 pounds of domestic wools.

Q. 32. What component materials are used in your manufacture on which you pay a special or *ad valorem* duty? Give the rate of duty.

A. Wools; 11 cents per pound.

Q. 33. If your raw material were free, would there be any necessity for a customs duty on the manufactured product?

A. If raw material was free it would certainly be necessary to have a duty on the manufactured product and much more than what the Wilson bill places it.

Q. 34. Please state the wholesale prices for 1884, 1890, and 1892. Have these prices increased or decreased since 1892?

A. The answer to question 9 will answer this.

Q. 35. What changes, if any, do you recommend of existing rates of duty or administrative customs laws?

A. We don't recommend any change in existing rates or administrative customs laws. The existing law is satisfactory to us.

V. OREGON SHEEP HUSBANDRY—PUBLIC SENTIMENT AS TO FREE WOOL.

1. Meeting and resolutions at Salem, January 17, 1894.
2. See U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, pages 205, 345–347.

[From The North Pacific Rural Spirit and Willamette Farmer, January 18, 1894, Portland, Oreg.]

SHEEP AND WOOL—NORTH PACIFIC SHEEP-BREEDERS' AND WOOL-GROWERS' ASSOCIATION MEETING.

The above-named representative association held a special and well attended meeting in the State capitol building at Salem last Tuesday, and took important steps toward preventing the enactment of the unjust measures against the wool producers of this country as proposed in the tariff bill now pending in Congress.

Had the President of the United States, or Mr. William L. Wilson, of the Ways and Means Committee of the National House of Representatives and the author of the Wilson tariff bill now pending in the United States Congress, been present at the meeting of the North Pacific Sheep Breeders' and Woolgrowers' Association Tuesday they would have heard, in most emphatic language, just how well they were esteemed by the representative sheep men of this portion of the great Northwest. However, they will learn of the sense of the meeting in a few days, as strong and well-worded resolutions were drafted and ordered to be sent to Oregon's members in Congress to present the condition of the wool interests in this section.

Chairman John Minto called the gathering to order shortly after 2 p. m., and, after stating the object of the meeting, announced that he, the previous evening, had prepared resolutions to be presented to Congress, and asked that they be read and thoroughly discussed. They were as follows:

(For preamble and resolutions see U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session, pp. 72, 73.)

The resolutions, being put to a vote, were adopted with but one dissenting vote—Mr. Robertson.

Mr. Apperson then offered the following resolution to be added to those drafted by Mr. Minto. It was also adopted:

Resolved, That the president and secretary of this association be requested to forward a copy of the foregoing resolutions to our Representatives and Senators, and urge upon them to do all in their power against the passage of the unjust Wilson bill.

David Craig, of Macleay, moved that the amount in the treasury, some $43, be voted towards the expense of sending a delegate to Washington to represent the wool interests of Oregon in an effort to prevent any change in the present tariff on that article.

W. W. Baker, editor of the Rural Spirit, was named as the proper person to act in this capacity, and he was unanimously chosen.

The following gentlemen delivered short addresses: President John Minto, Capt. J. T. Apperson, Dr. James Withycombe, Mr. G. W. Hunt, Hon. T. T. Geer, W. Manning, C. P. Bishop, Ed McKinney, Mr. Robertson, John Q. Wilson, and W. W. Baker.

VI. California Sheep Husbandry—Public Sentiment as to Free Wool.

1. As to these, see U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, 30; also, Mis. Doc. No. 77, same Congress and session, pp. 52, 69, 76.
2. San Francisco Live Stock, &c., Gazette, on.
3. Public meeting and resolution at San Francisco, January 3, 1894.
4. Public meeting and resolutions at San Francisco, January 10, 1894.

[From the Morning Call, San Francisco, Thursday, January 4, 1894.]

WANT PROTECTION—WOOL MEN ARE OPPOSED TO WILSON'S BILL—THEIR INDUSTRY MENACED—RESOLUTIONS AGAINST ANY TARIFF TINKERING—TELEGRAMS TO WASHINGTON—THE WHOLE STATE IS AROUSED OVER DEMOCRATIC MEDDLING WITH A PROTECTIVE MEASURE.

The woolgrowers and dealers of California are thoroughly aroused over the Democratic proposition to place wool on the free list. They claim that the action contemplated by Wilson in his free-trade bill will ruin their industry, and to save themselves they have formed a protective association. It is the purpose of this association to present a monster petition to Congress asking that the present duty on wool be maintained.

A meeting was held yesterday at 422 Townsend street to prepare resolutions on the tariff situation. Jacob Rosenberg presided, and Fred S. Moody was a voluntary secretary.

There was a striking unanimity of opinion upon the subject under consideration, and but little time was lost in arriving at a conclusion, which took shape in the following resolution:

Resolved, That we, the wool dealers, growers, and manufacturers of California, irrespective of party, do hereby protest in the most emphatic terms against changes in the tariff affecting wool and woolens as proposed by the Wilson bill. We assert that to remove the duty from wool and woolens will prostrate if not wholly destroy an industry which gives direct employment to 30,000 of our citizens. We call upon you, as a representative of California interests, to work and vote against these propositions.

I. R. Hall, B. P. Flint, Thomas Denigan, C. S. Moses, James P. Hulme, John E. Shoobert, committee; Jacob Rosenberg, president; Fred S. Moody, secretary.

The resolution was sent by telegraph to Congressmen Geary, Caminetti, Hilborn, Loud, Cannon, Bowers, Reed, and James G. Maguire.

The meeting decided that the Woolgrowers' and Dealers' State Convention, which is to meet next Wednesday, shall be held in Pioneer Hall, that the crowd may be accommodated.

Meanwhile the National Woolgrowers' Association is not idle. A call was received from that body yesterday by the president of the local one, as follows:

To the woolgrowers, sheep-breeders, patrons of husbandry, wool-dealers, and all interested in sheep husbandry in the United States:

At a mass meeting of woolgrowers of the United States at Chicago, September 29, and at a meeting of the National Woolgrowers' Association at the same place, October 5, 1893, I was directed to call a meeting of those interested at Washington, D. C.,

to enable them to be heard before the Committee on Finance of the Senate of the United States in opposition to any reduction of the present duties on wool and woolen goods. I appoint Tuesday, February 6, 1894, as the time of such meeting at the Ebbitt House, Washington, D. C. Among those who will ask to be heard before the committee are some of the officers of the National Woolgrowers' Association, some of the State associations, editors of wool journals and of other papers favoring protection, and the committee heretofore announced. I am advised that there is a fair prospect that the Senate will not pass a bill to put wool on the free list if the interests and wishes of the people are properly presented on the subject. I respectfully urge a full attendance from all the States and Territories. Free wool will substantially destroy the wool industry. Papers friendly to the objects of the meeting will please publish this.

WILLIAM LAWRENCE,
President of the National Woolgrowers' Association.

BELLEFONTAINE, OHIO, *December 30, 1893.*

Throughout the State a very forcible petition is being circulated by the California association. Copies are mailed to every town and village with a stamped return envelope, and already thousands of signatures of sheepmen and others directly interested in the wool industry have been received. These will be sent on to Washington with the printed petition, which is as follows:

To the honorable members of the Fifty-third Congress of the United States:

Whereas, as a result of a general belief that the tariff on woolen goods will be reduced and wool put on the free list, the price of wool is now below the cost of production; and whereas we believe that if wool is put on the free list and the tariff on woolen goods materially reduced the price of wool will be still lower; and whereas we can not afford to raise wool in competition with free wool raised in countries like Australia, where the woolgrower rents land from the Government at a less rental than we pay in taxes on our land and receives Government aid and encouragement; and whereas the lands of these United States are well suited to the raising of sheep, provided we can get a fair price for our wool and mutton; and whereas we believe that it is to the best interests of this country to prevent the slaughter of a large proportion of the sheep of this country, which will be the certain result of a further reduction in the price of wool:

We, the undersigned farmers and woolgrowers, irrespective of party, do hereby petition and beg that your honorable body will make no change in the present tariff affecting the wool and woolen schedule now in force.

[From the San Francisco Live Stock and Butchers' Gazette, and Hide, Wool, and Leather Review February 10, 1894.]

While the sheep and wool men are moving in all sections with energy and zeal, and making an herculean struggle to maintain the duties on foreign wool, the cattlemen who are likewise threatened by the Wilson tariff bill are slumbering as if no danger to their business was contemplated by the majority party in Congress. Half a million men are trying to protect wool, while the cattlemen sit silently by, and by their very silence invite the South American countries to come in and share, if not take, all the benefits which are rightfully theirs. Whether the cattle and meat clauses can be defeated or not, it is worth making the effort.

On this coast we will suffer from an influx of the rough cattle of Mexico and the frozen mutton of New Zealand. It is high time that our cattlemen were up and doing, and forming with the sheepmen a defensive alliance. It will be easier to keep live stock and dressed meats off the free list than to restore the duties if once removed.

"It is urged by some," says one of the oldest live-stock journalists of Texas, "that the price of meat is so low in this country that foreign dressed meats will not find it profitable to land, even with the present duty off. They *forget that owing* to shortage in this country we are

expecting a rise in meat values. How will it be then? It is my deliberate opinion that if the Wilson bill becomes a law it will not be six months before beef and mutton from the free grass of the pampas will be rubbed under our noses."

[From the San Francisco (Cal.), Morning Call, January 11, 1894.]

WOOL MEN SPEAK—REMOVAL OF DUTY WOULD BE FOLLY—WOULD RESULT IN RUIN—PREAMBLE AND RESOLUTIONS ARE ADOPTED—SPEECH BY BARCLAY HENLEY—HE TOUCHES THE DREAMERS AND THEORISTS—NOT A DEMOCRAT OF THE CLEVELAND TYPE.

The State convention of woolgrowers met yesterday and completed its business. The gathering was representative of the various interests dependent on wool. There were growers, manufacturers, commission men, and in the gallery sat a number of women and girls, wool assorters of this city.

The convention was called to order by Jacob Rosenberg, president of the Woolgrowers' and Wool-dealers' Association. He stated the purpose of the meeting to be to protest against the Wilson bill as far as it relates to wool and woolen goods.

B. P. Flint, for the committee of arrangements, presented an order of business for the meeting, which was unanimously approved. It provided that Barclay Henley should be selected as president, and for two vice-presidents from each county; that F. S. Moody should be secretary; that the president should appoint a committee on preamble and resolutions, consisting of 15 members, and that the president should appoint an executive committee of 15, who shall take charge of all matters relative to the objects of this convention. This committee will have power to raise money, print and distribute printed matter, to send delegates to Washington if, in its judgment, it deems it best, and to do all and everything necessary to carry into effect the resolutions adopted by this convention.

After thanking the convention for the honor conferred upon him, Mr. Henley said:

I suppose it is proper here, by way of establishing a rapport between myself as president and the members of this body, to make some observations pertinent to the purpose for which we are here assembled. I see before me a body of men whose only purpose is the consideration of certain great questions deeply and profoundly affecting the prosperity of the country.

A friend of mine in the audience, just before I ascended the platform, said that the attendance here was not as numerous as the magnitude of the interest would seem to demand. This is true. I lament to be obliged to state it, but I know the reason why. It is to be found in the notification which the wool merchants of this city sent to the growers throughout the State, that, owing to the price of wool, they had better not sheer their sheep this fall, and the fact of the nonattendance of many sheepgrowers is to be found in the fact that the business has become so depressed that it has become a serious inconvenience to find the money to meet the expense of attending.

In the Federal Congress is pending a tariff bill, from the name of its author known as the Wilson bill. Right here let me remind you that in every tariff measure since 1826 there has always been provided a tariff upon wool, but these latter-day statesmen have deemed it better to leave the practice of their forefathers and to place wool on the free list. Among woolgrowers in the United States there is no controversy as to whether the free listing of wool would be advantageous or not; it is out of the domain of debate. We know our business better than men of other occupations do—it is a safe rule in every profession. But in these latter days has arisen a class of dreamers and theorists, who, in the manner of Podsnap, with a wave of the hand tell you they know all about this. They heretofore told you that the free listing of wool will lift you out of the difficulties in which you are struggling and establish you on the firm rock of prosperity. It is useless to discuss the proposition, as its defenders have almost given it up.

The statisticians of the Treasury Department during Cleveland's first term said: "It is idle to talk about raising sheep in this country to compete with those in Australia, South America, etc." Under free wool the American people must know that raising sheep for wool and mutton must go down. And it is avowed by the Committee of Ways and Means and by Cleveland in his message to Congress, when he advocated free wool, that no industry was entitled to survive that was necessary to be maintained by the institution of tariff. That, fellow-citizens, is the theory on which these people plant themselves.

As to the magnitude of the wool industry in the United States, according to reliable statistics, it employs over 1,200,000 people and represents over $125,000,000. This industry, which is represented in almost every State of the Union, and which they would sacrifice to the demands of the hour, you will note is of all our industries the only one in which there is no overproduction to be found. There is overproduction in wheat, overproduction in fruit, but none in wool. We send to foreign countries nearly $70,000,000 for the purchase of wools. With increase in production, in quality, and fineness, with the demands of trade more approximately met, as we are rushing along in the career of prosperity, they seize us by the throat and attempt to strangle us to death. [Applause.]

In California, with the exception of Ohio and Texas, we surpass every other State of the Union in the sheep industry. We have this year over 3,500,000 sheep; the wool clip of 1892 was worth about $5,000,000, being the value of about 35,000,000 pounds of wool. You see what the destruction of this industry would mean to California—that this $5,000,000, which otherwise would be kept at home, will have to be sent to Australia, to the Cape of Good Hope, or to South America. I would rather keep that $5,000,000 here; if it be sent away, I shall get none of it; if it stays here, I shall get a dollar or two out of it.

Will anybody say that it is a desirable thing that this business should disappear, and that, as urged by our free-trade friends, we can turn our attention to the production of mutton, with its compensatory advantages. Unfortunately, the showing in behalf of mutton is worse than in behalf of wool, because by the refrigerating process ships carry from Australia to England and other foreign ports over 60,000 carcasses of mutton at a time. What is the use of talking of the production of mutton in California in competition? I have figures which show it would be a sheer impossibility—something which the intelligence of any one would reject at once—to think about the production of mutton or wool in the United States in competition with the countries enumerated.

I believe it is perfectly plain that this business can not survive the passage of the Wilson bill. You may talk to any of these gentlemen of the Ways and Means Committee and confront them with the plain facts, show them the difference between the production of sheep in the United States and in South America, with illimitable land and cheap labor, and they will look astonished and run off to Stuart Mills, Bastian, Ricardo.

If in San Francisco there were introduced a great number of doctors or lawyers, is it too great a strain on your credulity to ask you to believe that that would cheapen the fees of the doctors and lawyers already here? Or take the case of borax. If the State of Nevada, which for the occasion we will suppose to represent England, had vast deposits of borax and cheaper labor and other advantages, would not the admittance of the article duty free lessen the remunerative employment of the borax-workers in California? But they will say: "Yes, that is true, the business will have to go by the board, but we will get cheaper borax?" So they will, but right here I want to say that I differ in toto from those who seem to think that the *summum bonum* of human existence is cheapness. Unless you can get living rates for what you produce from the soil and from manufactures, the result must be dislocation, disturbance of equilibrium, and consequent ruin and despair. Cheapness is the Mecca of the Ways and Means Committee and the political theorist. If cheapness be the great desideratum, the farmer of California ought to-day to be in a condition of inexpressible beatitude. He has got it cheap enough; never were clothes so cheap, or iron so cheap, nothing was ever so cheap, except the taxes, which he can not pay, and according to these individuals—Adam Smith, Stuart Mill, Ricardo, Wilson, Cleveland, etc.—the farmers and fruit-growers and wool-producers ought to be very happy men. Are they happy? No; there never was such want in their households as now in the State of California. There sits the specter of apprehension that keeps men in misery night and day; their business is running behind, and if they suffer the country storekeeper suffers the wholesaler in the city suffers.

That is a thing that the theorists and dreamers seem to be incapable of comprehending—that a great republic must have diversified industries. If the woolgrower is to go out of business he must live. What is he to do? Go into the wheat business? That is overcrowded. Do the farmers of the Sacramento want it? Would it be conducive to the happiness of your fellow-citizens? No. The thing to do is to

encourage a diversity of industries in this country. The one is harmonious with the other, and the prosperity of one depends on that of all.

The true doctrine of this country is to so adjust your tariff as to incidentally protect those things that needed protection, and this has ever been the doctrine of this Republic until there was ushered into the Presidential chair a man who seems to be too big to sit in it. I spent two terms in Congress and was the follower in the foregoing doctrine, and would be to-day did he live, of Samuel J. Randall, of Pennsylvania.

These gentlemen of the Ways and Means Committee believe to a certain extent in protection, but will not carry their belief far enough to benefit the industries of the country. Now, protection is either right or wrong. If it be wrong, the further you can get away from it the better. If it be right, adopt it. If they believe that protection is an evil why do they not put a tariff on coffee and tea, on which they could raise a great revenue. Neither is a product of the country, and the measure would have no element of protection.

When a man is elected to Congress, leaves his constituency, and goes to the scene of his labors, he is surrounded by all kinds of influences, the effect of which will be oblivion of the purposes for which he was sent. I was asked to vote for a tariff bill in conformity with the national platform. "You are a Democrat; here is a Democratic bill from the caucus; you must get in line; there is to be no flinching, etc." I had to point out that the platform on which I was elected was antagonistic to part of the national platform in regard to fruit and wool. "I was compelled by my allegiance to the great Democratic party and all that kind of thing to vote for this bill." Democratic or Republican, I could not hesitate nor vote for the bill. In Washington you have seen the lamentable spectacle of a Democratic caucus held in the lower House to compel Representatives to forget their obligations to their constituents, and, right or wrong, vote at its dictation. Some refused, but finally they have voted to give consideration to the bill.

When the American people elected Cleveland they resolved in favor of free wool, it may be said. I wish that question alone could be submitted to the suffrages of the American people. You have seen not long since in the imperial State of Ohio Governor McKinley elected by a majority that makes us reel to think of it, not because he was a Republican, not that he was a better man than O'Neill, but because in his career he incarnated the idea and gave a guaranty of everlasting protection in behalf of the industries of America.

They ask triumphantly, "Why is the wool cheap now, when it is protected?" The reason is, we have to contend with the illimitable resources of Australia, the Cape of Good Hope, South America, etc. But the real cause of the low price is the threat in this bill that tells the wool purchasers that if they will only wait until the bill be passed foreign wool will come in and it will be cheaper than now.

The history of this country teaches us in regard to other things what the effect of the passage of the bill would be. Wool being on the free list, we would be driven out of business, and until foreign countries secured the trade it would be cheap. When secured, as in the case of iron, then wool would increase enormously in price.

The president then appointed the following committees:

Resolutions: J. H. Glide, B. P. Flint, A. Holman, Thomas McConnell, S. E. Holden, S. E. Knight, J. R. Hall, Prof. Hilgard, J. Rosenberg, A. M. Wardell, G. G. Kimball, J. M. Costigan, F. L. Orcutt, N. Manasse, and H. F. Ostrander.

Executive committee: J. E. Shoobert, Thomas Denigan, J. Rosenberg, F. P. McLennan, J. P. Hulme, J. R. Hall, J. L. Moody, G. S. Moses, Thomas McConnell, J. T. MacMahon, R. F. Peckham, J. H. Glide, P. D. Jewett, H. Meecham, E. H. Ward, and H. F. Ostrander.

At the afternoon session President B. Henley read the following preamble and resolutions formulated by the appointed committee:

(For preamble and resolutions, see U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session, pp. 71, 72.)

Mr. McConnell said that the United States could produce all the wool necessary. Without protection our economic conditions would sink to those of other countries.

It is pleasant to see our Democratic friends following the great protectionist, S. J. Randall. I know that Senator Perkins is with us on this proposition, and if right influence be brought to bear on Senator White the probabilities are that the bill may be prevented.

Judge Peckham, of San Jose, said:

I manufacture goods for the millions of America, and the San Jose mills have never used a pound of imported wool. The only fault of our goods is their durability. Goods are made not only of California wool alone, but from wool grown in the United States. There is a class of people who prefer to pay $75 for a suit of clothes of foreign cloth to $25 for American cloth. They get no better goods.

Mr. Hebron, of Salinas:

I was a sheep-grower in California as long as it was profitable, then I transferred my flocks to Texas. If the duty on wool be taken off I shall give it up. I would like to say that, as a member of the board of equalization, I should like to meet the woolgrowers to settle the matter of valuation of sheep, which differs so much in different parts of the State.

Mr. MacMahon, of Humboldt:

We meet to petition Congress to except the wool product of the country from the action of the Wilson bill. The effect of Democratic government has been to contract the currency, depress business, and make our workingmen paupers. We should ask Congress to except all American products from the Wilson bill. We want to remind our Representatives that we expect them to perform their duty for California untrammeled by party. They are our servants. The only fault with the McKinley bill was in not putting $100 head tax on every immigrant.

Prof. Hilgard said:

An English expert before a Congressional commission, said that in examining woolen goods at Chicago he could find nothing in which the English manufacturers excelled the American; in kind they were different, but that the best of either kind was equally good. The only kind of goods of which American manufacturers will never be able to dispossess the English and French are those required by that part of the population, less than 10 per cent, to whom nothing is good unless it comes from Paris or London. Men get their fashions from London; women theirs from Paris. There is a hopeful feature about this matter, as the wool manufacturers say they have no use for free wool if the tariff on woolen goods is reduced.

Judge Peckham asserted that one could buy to-day in San Francisco some class of goods cheaper than in London.

S. E. Holden said:

As a manufacturer, I say that the woolgrower is entitled to the same protection as the manufacturer. Congress proposes to take $20,000,000 from the income of the United States, and the proposition to supplement the tariff by an income tax, the most odious of all taxes, is preposterous, un-American, and unbusiness like.

H. F. Ostrander said:

Wool has ever had on the Democratic party the same effect as a red rag on a bull. If the Wilson bill passes, in place of foreigners coming to our country, we shall have to hunt for a new place to live in.

Isacc Harris:

The loss of the sheep industry would mean to California the loss of $4,000,000, and the depreciation in the wool clip $2,000,000; in all, $6,000,000. This money, now disbursed among all in the State, would then be lost to it. There are 2,000 wool pullers employed in this city. If the Wilson bill should pass their employment would be gone. It would be cheaper to locate at Havre, buy the pelts here and ship them to France, where they could be pulled, manufactured, and sent at less cost to the New York and Boston markets.

Mr. Hebbron pointed out the fact that the shipping of Vermont sheep to Australia disproved the assertion that the United States could not raise as good wool as other countries. Prof. Hilgard remarked that, according to the English expert's testimony, when the high tariff went into effect the English bought American machinery to compete.

Mr. Henley said:

Whenever you want to find out your own course, first find what your enemy wants you to do and do the opposite. I take English papers and I venture to say that they had no fault to find with the Mills or the Morrison or the Wilson bills. One other

thing I want to say: Whatever may be said of a certain kind of Democrats, I am perfectly willing to state I am not a Cleveland Democrat. I am a Democrat of the school of Jefferson and Jackson, who were in favor of protection for American industries.

The meeting then adjourned subject to the call of the chair, after which the executive committee selected Thomas McConnell to represent the wool industry at Washington before Congress and as a delegate to the National Wool Convention.

WOOL AND MUTTON.

The American sheep is being attacked both in front and in rear. Wool can be imported from Australia at less than its American costt and Australian mutton is as much cheaper than American mutton as Australian wool is cheaper than American wool. This, at least, is the picture held up for consideration by the woolgrowers at their State convention on Wednesday by so good a Democrat as Barclay Henley. The speaker said, also, that California was the third State in the Union in the woolgrowing industry, having no less than 3,000,000 sheep. The wool product in 1892 was 35,000,000 pounds, valued at $5,000,000. The Wilson bill is the first tariff-reform proposition that has placed wool on the free list. But the decree now is that woolgrowers must look out for themselves.

VII.—Woolen Workers Protest Against Free Wool.

1. Meeting at New York city, January 10, 1894, expresses opposition to the Wilson bill.
2. Speeches, arguments, facts, resolutions.
3. On same subject see U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session, 1889.
4. Also see the proceedings of the New York meeting in full, with names of manufacturers appended thereto, in the bulletin of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers, Boston, March, 1894, Vol. XXIV, No. 1, pp. 12–48.

[From the New York Press of January 11, 1894.]

200,000 WOOLEN WORKERS PROTEST—REPRESENTATIVES OF MANY STATES DENOUNCE THE WILSON BILL—THE VIEWS OF EXPERTS—INJUSTICE AND INCONSISTENCY OF THE SCHEDULE EXPOSED—STRONG RESOLUTIONS PASSED—A REMARKABLE GATHERING IN THE GREAT DINING ROOM OF THE METROPOLITAN HOTEL AT WHICH PARTY POLITICS WERE UNKNOWN—FACTS AND FIGURES THAT THEORETICAL TINKERS OF THE TARIFF MAY STUDY WITH PROFIT.

The meeting held by the wool manufacturers of the United States in the big dining room of the Metropolitan Hotel yesterday afternoon for the purpose of voicing a protest against the impending Wilson tariff bill was the largest gathering of textile manufacturers ever held in this country. Of the 1,100 who signed the original call 600 sent notifications that they could not be present, but were in hearty accord with the objects of the meeting. When the meeting was called to order, nevertheless, more than 700 men were present. These men as employers represented more than 200,000 working people. Throughout the proceedings the utmost earnestness prevailed, and the speeches and *resolutions* were greeted with the heartiest applause.

The meeting was called to order by Rufus S. Frost, president of the National Association of Wool Manufacturers; S. D. N. North, secretary of the same organization, acting as secretary. Committees were appointed as follows:

Organization.—Charles A. Stott, Massachusetts; Gordon Dobson, Maine; Theodore E. Search, Pennsylvania; G. E. Keeney, Connecticut; G. B. Waterhouse, New Jersey.

Resolutions.—John N. Carpender, New Jersey; John Hopewell, jr., Massachusetts; J. R. MacCall, Rhode Island; D. L. Einstein, New York; W. R Cordingly, Rhode Island.

Credentials.—F. E. Simpson, Massachusetts; H. D. Pixley, New York; J. W. Himes, New York; Sidney Cushing, Massachusetts.

THE OFFICERS.

The committee on organization named the following:

President, Rufus S. Frost, of Massachusetts; vice-presidents, Horatio N. Slater, Massachusetts; W. L. Strong, New York; A. D. Julliard, New York; Lorenzo Maynard, Massachusetts; George Merritt, Indiana; Otto Dressler, New Jersey; Thomas Dolan, Pennsylvania; Charles Fletcher, Rhode Island; Alexander Crow, jr., Pennsylvania; E. C. Thayer, New Hampshire; Howland Croft, New Jersey; Seth M. Milliken, New York; W. O. Arnold, Rhode Island; W. G. Steel, Pennsylvania; John A. Lane, Massachusetts; Stephen Sanford, New York; H. P. Sturdevant, Connecticut; Louis Anderson, Maine; Isaac Fenno, Massachusetts; James Talcott, New York; J. W. Busiel, New Hampshire; C. A. Russell, Connecticut; Charles E. Stevens, Massachusetts; A. T. Sullivan, New York; Thomas Oakes, New Jersey; Switz Conde, New York; George Campbell. Pennsylvania; John Sloan, New York; W. C. Browning, New York; M. Newburg, New York; E. D. Barrows, Indiana; J. W. Himes, New York; H. R. Lister, New York; J. B. Smith, New Hampshire; A. L. Sayles, Maine; W. G. Ray, Massachusetts; George W. Bramhall, New York; J. T. Capps, Illinois; John T. Ray, New York; William Wood, Pennsylvania; L. Parkes, Kentucky; T. E. Hopkins, Connecticut; T. F. Patterson, New York; D. L. Einstein, New York; George F. Hall, Massachusetts; H. J. Libby, New York; Alfred Dolge, New York; J. R. MacColl, Rhode Island; C. H. Sawyer, New Hampshire; Sidney Cushing, Massachusetts; W. A. Holden, Indiana; A. P. Hammond, Connecticut; secretary, Curtis Guild, jr., of the Boston Commercial Bulletin.

On taking the chair Presiding Officer Frost said, among other things:

We do not come together as partisans, although we do represent both of the great political parties, but we come as manufacturers of woolen goods, finding that the woolen goods business, as well as also nearly every other industry, is threatened, while labor is suffering for lack of employment. About 90 per cent of the population of the United States, including the farmers and their assistants, are laborers, and when labor is well employed business is always good, but when labor is only partly employed or wages cut down their capacity to buy the comforts of life is cut off, and thereby all kinds of trade lose their market.

THE CAUSE OF IT.

What has brought us to this condition? It is because the majority of the Ways and Means Committee of Congress have proposed a tariff bill which will encourage foreign labor instead of American labor, and especially because it abolishes specific duties and adopts all ad valorem duties, thus inviting frauds upon the National Treasury and ruining honest importers, the direct result of all which is the swamping of our markets with inferior goods made by the cheap-paid labor of Europe. If our goods are to be made by laborers abroad, they must be made of foreign wool; and what becomes of our splendid wool and sheep industry which now furnishes this country with 364,000,000 pounds of wool annually? To the farmer his land and sheep are the free raw materials and wool is the product, and he has just as much right to protection in the production of wool as the rice planters of South Carolina or the sugar planters of Louisiana or the coal and iron miners of Alabama and Pennsylvania; and they are all entitled to protection.

We do not object to making the tariff as low as it can be and keep the business in America, but, of whatever party we may be, let us as patriots unite in demanding that the American markets shall be kept for the American people.

ADVICE GIVEN.

Resolutions urging that the protectionist members of Congress refuse to help out free traders and abstain from voting for any issue of bonds were presented to the convention by Mr. H. L. James, of Rockville, Conn. They were received with applause and referred to the committee on resolutions, the members of which favored them individually, but as the matter of the bond issue has no direct connection with wool it was deemed inexpedient to report the resolutions for action by the meeting.

Hon. Titus Sheard, of Little Falls, made a motion to the effect that all present who should enroll themselves by filling out the cards distributed by the credentials committee should place thereon the amount of money annually paid out in wages. This was adopted.

Mr. Frost then read a telegram from Walker Richardson, president of the Kentucky Wool Manufacturers' Association, stating that, although unable to attend, he, in behalf of his association, pledged assistance in every way that lay in the power of the association.

A telegram from Hon. Cornelius N. Bliss, regretting his inability to be present, but assuring the meeting of his sympathy, was then read. and then Hon. William H. Haile, ex-lieutenant governor of Massachusetts, made a ringing address, which was frequently punctuated with volleys of applause. Among other things he said:

A GROWTH OF YEARS.

The woolen industry in our country, of which we are representatives, has from small beginnings grown until it has attained its present magnificent proportions, and upon its continued success depends, directly and indirectly, the prosperity of millions of our people. We are not here as partisans, but the gravity of the situation that confronts us has served to bring us together, and we meet on common ground, not only as business men but as loyal citizens who are anxious to do what is right and for the greatest good of the nation.

We are opposed to the radical changes in our economic system as proposed by the Wilson tariff bill.

We have come to a remarkable state of affairs in our national legislation when theories are accepted instead of facts.

But the claim is made that we are to have "free wool" as though this was a full compensation for the contemplated reduction of duties on imported woolens, when American manufacturers know that this is not the case. Speaking for myself, I am unable to understand why the American woolgrower is not entitled to protection as well as the wool manufacturer.

WHY NOT SUPPORTED.

A leading advocate of the Wilson tariff bill states that it is in the interest of seventy millions of the people. If that be true, how does it happen that remonstrance whose number are legion are in circulation against its passage and practically none in its favor? How does it happen that wherever we go there is a burst of indignation among all classes? More than a year has elapsed since the national election took place. During the time we have witnessed the greatest business disturbance of the past half century and the end is not yet. On calm reflection and judgment the people fully realize that tariff reform is to them a delusion and a great wrong. Again, it is said that Congressmen must vote for the bill no matter if they represent districts where the people, regardless of party, demand that the bill be killed. They are told that they must be broad minded and vote for the bill because it will benefit other sections. What strange doctrine is this? We had supposed that each Congressman should look out for the interests of his own district.

A PURE THEORIST.

The chairman of the Ways and Means Committee has shown that he is a theorist pure and simple and without any business experience, and in his remarks concerning those who were to assemble here to-day he certainly forgot to be a gentleman. A

rominent politician in Massachusetts, who was a candidate for the chief executive fice in his State, said a few days ago in Washington, if correctly quoted, that he anted to see the protective principle torn out root and branch and trodden under ot, and he also said that he branded as beggars and frauds the handful of manuctnrers who have for years been growing rich by the workings of the laws wrung om the unprotected rank and file of the people. Such is the vindictive language f one who proclaims himself a free trader. We take our stand as protectionists, nd we know that under this system our country has attained its wondrous and nexcelled prosperity.

The cheering was long and enthusiastic at the conclusion of this ddress. A letter from George W. Bramhall, of Bramhall Brothers & o., New York, was then read. Among other things the letter said:

WHAT IT MEANS.

I want to join your protest against the wool and woolen schedule of the Wilson ill. If it passes hundreds of thousands must inopportunely suffer reductions in ages and income. I protest as a Democrat (applause) who has conscientiously and onsistently voted against the establishment of war-made duties and against a degree f protection that is beyond the point of revenue needs, and who does not condemn he Wilson bill, but pronounce its provisions destructive to a degree that can not be econciled either with a tariff for revenue or with President Cleveland's free-wool nessage of 1887 or his inaugural address of 1893.

After the cheers had died away, J. M. Barnet, of Troy, delivered an mpassioned address, in the course of which he read the following letter rom Congressman Haines (Dem.), of Troy:

WASHINGTON, *January 6.*

Mr. F. M. AUFESSER, *Troy, N. Y.:*

MY DEAR SIR: I have the honor to acknowledge receipt of your favor of the 5th instant.

It is my desire and intention to introduce an amendment to the Wilson bill so as to retain the present duties upon knit underwear.

If I can obtain the privilege from the chairman of the Committee of the Whole or the Speaker of the House, I shall also speak upon the subject.

Yours, very truly,

CHARLES D. HAINES.

Mr. Barnet said that this meeting should impress on Congressmen that it is the wish of their constituents to vote against this pernicious bill. Every Congressman has his weak point, and it should be found.

Charles Heber Clarke, secretary of the Philadelphia Manufacturers' Club, said the proposed bill was revolutionary and opposed to the spirit of the first tariff bill, which was signed by George Washington. He spoke of the false charge that protection was secured by bribery by manufacturers. The Wilson bill would not relieve taxation—it would only shift it. In order to do this Wilson and his colleagues had plunged this country into a depression as bad as that caused by the civil war, and caused a deficiency of millions.

NO AMENDMENTS.

The bill ought not to be amended. What is wanted is the McKinley law.

The meeting gave three cheers for the McKinley law at the close of Mr. Clarke's remarks.

Robert Ward made a short address controverting Prof. Wilson's statement that the woolen industry had not gone forward with the other industries. His figures were received with applause.

Hon. Titus Sheard, of Little Falls, being called on, said:

It is a condition and not a theory that confronts us. The present conditions have not been before equaled in the history of the country. We have been maligned by our servants on the floor of the House of Representatives, we have been spoken of as worse than robber barons. If there is anything a tariff reformer hates worse than a manufacturer it is a sheep. We read of a statesman on the other side who always gets over the fence when he sees a sheep and kicks it. Let us stand by the

sheep he kicked. I never met a manufacturer who wanted free wool who did not want protection for himself. Let us stand by the woolgrower—stand or fall together.

Many free traders are not for the bill. If we can keep it as it is it will never pass. Protective Congressmen should not vote for any amendments. If they stick to that it will be killed. Let us kill it.

Then the protest, prepared by the committee on resolutions, was read and adopted with a rush amid cheers, as follows:

(For the protest see U. S. Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session, Chap. VIII, pp. 89–92.)

After the cheering had subsided Joseph Greene, of East Hampton, Mass., offered a resolution, which was adopted, that copies of the protest be sent to the President and both Houses of Congress, accompanied by the 1,100 names of manufacturers supporting it.

Included among those present was Robert Blenkie, of Hyde Park, Mass., who has in the past been a bulwark of the tariff-reform sentiment in his State. He expressed himself as in perfect accord with the spirit of the meeting and the resolutions adopted.

CHAPTER SIXTH.

PROTEST AGAINST FREE WOOL BY AN IMMENSE AND ENTHUSIASTIC CONVENTION OF WOOLGROWERS AND OTHER CITIZENS OF NEW MEXICO, COLORADO, AND OTHER STATES AT DENVER, FEBRUARY 5 AND 6, 1894, PROTESTING AGAINST FREE WOOL.

I.—THE ROCKY MOUNTAIN REGION AGAINST FREE WOOL.

1. In Senate Miscellaneous Document No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session, will be found CHAPTER TENTH, pages 105 and 106, giving a call by the governor of Colorado for a meeting of delegates from States to protest against free wool, and the resolutions passed by the meeting.

II.—THE ADDRESS OF HON. F. D. WIGHT, PRESIDENT OF THE MEETING ON THAT OCCASION.

2. The following is the address in wool's defense:

ADDRESS OF PRESIDENT F. D. WIGHT, OF TRINIDAD, COLO., TO THE INTERSTATE CONVENTION OF WOOLGROWERS, AT DENVER, COLO., FEBRUARY 6, 1894.

Mr. Wight said:

GENTLEMEN: In northern New Mexico and southern Colorado petitions were circulated among woolgrowers asking the governor of Colorado to call an Interstate Woolgrowers' Convention to be held in this city. These petitions were numerously signed and forwarded. The petitioners' request has been granted by Governor Waite, and pursuant to his call we now meet here to consider the wool-growing and sheep-husbandry interest in these United States.

The President of the United States has, it seems, almost unaccountably, for years chosen wool as the subject for argument and illustration of his free-trade principle, utterly ignoring the interests of more than a million of his countrymen, utterly ignoring the fifth greatest industry of the country. He has brought to bear, by the great influence of his position, a pressure which threatens, by taking the duty off of wool, to bring us (the woolgrowers and sheep husbandmen of the United States) in direct competition with the cheap negro laborer of South Africa; the cheap peon laborer of South America, and the cheap Chinaman laborer of China; the bushmen and squatter laborer of Australia, the half-civilized laborer of the nomadic tribes of Asia Minor, southern Russia, and eastern Turkey.

The conditions and advantages in climate in all these countries are such, together with the always extremely low price of all uncivilized and half civilized labor, that it is impossible for us to compete with them even in our own market. The transportation on wool from all the countries named costs less to Boston than it costs us on wool to the Missouri River. While at the World's Fair I visited the wool exhibits of the Argentine Republic, Paraguay, and Uruguay, also that of the Orange Free State and other countries. I found the wool from South America and South Africa very much like the wool produced by this and surrounding States and Territories,

while in the Argentine Republic exhibit there were samples of combing wool- the bulk run about fine medium.

In the grease and dirt, in the weight of fleece and the way it was put up, I could hardly tell it, or that from the Orange Free State, from my own, had it been dumped down in my wool house with my own wool. Now this wool has not given us much trouble because they could not bring it here and pay 11 cents duty per pound and compete with us. Like ours, it was not carefully put up; it had too much dirt and grease and tags, too much shrinkages; but take the duty off it will be just the wool which will knock us out. The woolgrowers of Australia have been too shrewd to send here grease, tags, and dirt to pay duty on.

They have carefully skirted all their fleeces and sent to our market only the lightest and nicest part of the fleece, selling their tags and dirt in some country where there is no duty. The above is the reason why Australia has been so much more a serious competitor in our markets than South America and South Africa, but with the duty off, Australia, too, can dump her wool skirts, tags, dirt and all on us.

I got quite well acquainted with the gentlemen in charge of the Orange Free State and Argentine Republic exhibits, and learned much of them regarding the cost and manner of their production of wool. The handling of their flocks is largely on the same general principle of our own range handling of sheep, but with these and many other differences in their favor: A climate so mild and equable that there is absolutely no loss from inclemency of weather; a limitless open and free range; wages of herders and other help not one-fourth of that of Colorado and New Mexico; the cost of what bread they use not any more, if as much, as with us; cost of meat nothing, and as for other food, such as pork, beans, dried fruit, potatoes, coffee, sugar, and sirup, etc., which our herders demand and get, with them are luxuries neither known nor cared for. To feed their help probably costs them less than one-sixth of what it costs us; to get their wool to our market costs them less than it costs us to get ours there, yet our President and his adherents tell us that "free wool" is to our advantage; to go ahead, that we can meet all these conditions and make money; but we know when they talk wool they talk stuff. They talk what they neither know nor care anything about, more than they think it is a plausible thing to make free-trade capital of. To hoodoo the masses on the cheap-clothes racket is their object. It would strike one out in this neck of the woods that the free-wool men were not caring very much what the masses wear. Their minds have been too much absorbed lately in Queen Lill and her court to care whether their own countrymen wear wool, cotton, burlap, or rags, or nothing at all.

It would strike an observing mind that it was the masses of some other country they were caring about just now. So far as history goes we are indebted to President Cleveland for the discovery that protection on wool was working a great injustice to the poor, dear people, that they were robbed to fatten the woolgrowers. Before he became a candidate for the Presidency the question was not raised that wool should have a fair protection with other commodities; in fact, Democrats in woolgrowing States conceded and demanded that as an agricultural product it should, in the interest of the farmer, receive protection, but it seems that Cleveland in casting about for some one thing to work up free-trade capital on (they did not dare in those Cobden Club times to speak "free trade" right out, but called it tariff for the revenue only), stumbled on wool, and the very thing probably of all others which he knew the least about, but he knew that the general feeling among the people was "that all wool and a yard wide" was what made the cost of a suit of clothes. With his superficial knowledge he might have thought so himself at the time. Then he probably reasoned this way: "Everybody, rich and poor, wear clothes which are made largely of wool; I have hit just the thing. I will make them think I love them, that I have discovered where a great injustice is done them. I will raise their indignation against the woolgrower by making them see what tribute they pay him."

Well, when Mr. Cleveland starts on a thing he is noted for staying by it; we must give him credit for staying qualities. Like the Bourbons, he "neither learns nor forgets." Great men sometimes, when they undertake to talk about something which they know but little about, especially when it is about the practical working of what they discourse, expose an ignorance which is amazing to those who do know, and know not only by experience but have financial interests at stake.

Perhaps if our President had enough financial interest at stake he, too, would have known better, but be that as it may we will briefly examine his arguments to the Ohio woolgrower, where he (Mr. Cleveland) a year or two ago explained that free wool would be a great benefit to him. Mr. Cleveland's argument was something like this: You have 100 sheep which grow 700 pounds of wool, for which you now get 33 cents a pound, or $231. With the duty off, you get 10 cents less for your wool, or $161, or $70 less than with the duty. We will say your family consists of 6 persons, and that they get along with an average of two new suits a year, the female members of the family using an equivalent in their clothing. It equals twelve suits

:hing, which, at $25 a suit, makes $300. Add for blankets, underclothing, 7, etc., say, $200; it makes a total of $500 you pay out. Now, on what you pay · the woolen you buy you pay 60 per cent duty, making $300 more than you have to pay with free wool. Now, on the wool you produce, by reason of · the duty off, you lose $70, and, for the same reason, on what you buy you save a net gain of $230.

that argument was a "clincher" on the Ohio woolgrower. The wonder is e has not been able to see it yet. But this argument, based on the hypothesis he farmer was saving $230 by taking the duty off of wool, would give the · his clothing for a considerable less than nothing if Mr. Cleveland would go ; further in the interest of the dear farmer and take the duty off of manufac- cloth, which duty proportionately is nearly double that on wool. We will ow the correct figures and see what the farmer saves or what anybody else save by "free wool." The general impression that the wool in a suit of s is the costly part, or the larger part of the expense in a suit, is incorrect. loth in a suit may be all wool "and a yard wide," but the manufactured wool it is but a small item, a mere bagatelle of the expense of the suit. To those o not know or have not given it thought it looks like the groundwork, or 'ger part of the expense of a suit. We will see. The other day I weighed a n of cloth which a tailor was going to make up into a suit of clothes (it was e cloth of the suit I have on, but there were as many yards of it and it was r goods); the pattern weighed a little less than seven pounds. Now the col- natter in this cloth would weigh over a pound, but we will call it a pound, g six pounds of cleaned wool which went into the cloth. Good fine scoured o-day is quoted 40 cents per pound; consequently all the consumer paid the rower for all the wool in his forty-dollar suit of clothes was $2.40. Allowing ie present price of 40 cents for good fine scoured wool is as cheap as it will go free trade, and that under last year's prices, 60 cents per scoured pound, the n the suit of clothes would then have cost $3.60, and the woolgrower would eceived a protection of $1.20 on the wool in a forty-dollar suit. Now this tion is the difference between making or breaking the woolgrower. If the of the $2.40 worth of wool was given to the manufacturer, before it reached nsumer a few dimes of it would stick to the many different fingers it went h, and the consumer at last would get his suit but little, if any, less. Any- ie trifling amount given in the way of protection would be entirely absorbed road from wool to the made-up suit. In fact, it is not the so-called and mis- raw wool that makes the cost of clothing; it is the labor expended in the rocess of manufacture of cloth and clothing that makes the clothing cost; but han the labor, along the road it travels from wool to the made-up garment, is ofit of the manufacturer of the cloth, of the wholesale and retail merchant lls the cloth.

profit of the manufacturer of clothing and the profits of the wholesale and dealers in selling the clothing make it cost; but for party and political advan- nd effect the insane and inane cry is made against protected wool as being the pal cause of cost.

wool will not cheapen clothing to the consumer. Clothing here is already ap and as good, and looks and fits much better than the ready-made or tailor- clothing of any country on earth, and *that* with all our protection and profits. more do the masses want? They want nothing more! They are not in the ," and were it not for the great mogul and his satraps who so admire British e and British aristocracy, who want nothing but the rich man's money, noth- t gold—were it not for his great heart bursting and overflowing for them in tter of cheap clothing, they would never have mistrusted but clothing was enough.

will now see what difference protected or unprotected wool makes to the Ohio · on one hundred sheep. Last year his seven hundred pounds of wool brought 59; this year by the mere agitation of free wool he gets $140—a loss of $119. l was free and woolens protected, as Wilson proposes, he would not buy his g any cheaper. But we will give Mr. Cleveland the full benefit of all there is argument, and make the farmer pay every cent more that he has to pay by of protection on wool, providing he gets it all and none of it sticks anywhere fore it reaches him. The problem would stand thus: If the farmer got pro- of $1.20 on his wool that went into a forty-dollar suit, he would get protec- the extent of 70 cents on a twenty-five-dollar suit such as Mr. Cleveland es. On twelve suits he would save $8.40; on the woolen blankets, hosiery, r. Cleveland describes, at the same rate, he would save $5.50 more—a total of aved and $119 lost.

onder the Ohio farmer is unable to comprehend the force or value of Mr. nd's figuring; but without doubt he can see through the sophistry that fig-

nres him a saving of $230 by reason of "free wool." He absolutely loses $105.10 by the mere agitation of "free wool." The commissioner in charge of the exhibit of the Orange Free State at the World's Fair stated to me that they paid $3 a month to their native herders and other help, or $36 a year. The herder bought his own breech clout and other supplies, as also the breech clouts and supplies for the rest of his family, out of $36, and he said they lived very comfortably from their income, with something left for luxuries and dissipation.

The commissioner from the Argentine Republic, in speaking of the advantages of that country in breeding and multiplying flocks, gave as an illustration the fact that they rounded up thousands of young, beautiful mares when they were fat and slaughtered them for their hide and tallow, realizing about $1 a piece for them, but the money they realized was not the principal object for killing them. It was to keep the herds from multiplying and overrunning the country and eating out the range, which was more profitable for other stock. He said that sheep would multiply with but a little more care and attention than horses. Woolgrowers, what do you think of the competition we are coming to? Had we better or had we better not fight free wool? Why such subterfuge, that wool should be made free to cheapen clothing to the masses, and at the same time made free to build up and make prosperous a protected class of manufacturers? The same subserviency that has caused the framers and supporters of the Wilson bill to single out wool on which to visit the supposed sins of a protective system caused the downfall of silver and rendered one-half of the circulating medium of the people mere merchandise.

Of course, it is for the people that they seek to strike down another great interest of the West. Is it for the benefit of Old England or New England, of the East or the West, that these sweet singers echo the voice of their chief? Without doubt Democratic Congressmen are committed to free wool, but the States they represent *are not*. The great inscrutible may saddle and bridle and ride them, but he has no cinch on McKinley's State or any other like it. A few fleeting years and "the place which knows him now will know him no more forever." He will have no cinch on anything or anybody, not even on himself, but to hasten that time, let us unfurl our flag and stand by our colors, pledge ourselves, and stand by our pledge that we will not vote for any candidate, State or nation, who favors free wool, and unless he will pledge himself, if elected, to do all in his power to give wool fair and adequate protection (with all other commodities needing protection), pledge ourselves to do all in our power to defeat such candidate.

Never has there been a time within the history of our industry so critical, so momentous, so fraught with danger, and so threatening to the very existence of our interests, as is the present. Most of us here know only too well what trials we have been through; what doubt, hardship, loss, uncertainty, and perplexity we have sustained these many years to build up an industry hardly second to none in this and surrounding States and Territories. Evidently there is a power to whom it is nothing, and there are those who are subservient to that power to whom it is nothing that we should be deprived of that we have; but to us it is much, to our families it is much; to our children whom we wish to educate it is a great deal; and, in the larger number of cases, to the men who have worked so hard and so long it is their all.

For what have many of us, in the long years gone by, suffered and toiled? For what are many now watching through storm and blizzard, through the day and night? For what did we, and for what are they facing the uncertainty of winter and dreading the droughts in summer, overcoming obstacles of every sort? Is it to have our flocks (the fruits of labor) ruthlessly swept away? Are we not as a class who by our perseverance and sober industry helped subdue this wilderness, helped build up schools, churches, and cities, helped bear the burden of State and nation, as deserving as they of the Eastern States who build and operate *factories*.

Why, then, has the mandate gone forth that the fleeces from our flocks shall go in one end of these factories free and come out at the other end protected?

Away off thousands of miles in the Western Ocean are a few little islands; through nearly a century's labor of American missionaries the barbarous and savage inhabitants of those islands have become to a degree civilized and christianized. The descendants of those self-sacrificing missionaries form the largest part of the educated professional and business portion of the country. The Queen is of part European and part native blood; her family has intermarried with the family of the British minister. Dissolute herself, dominated largely by dissolute advisers and British influence, she sought to supplant the constitution of the country by one which was intolerant of the rights and liberties of the people, but in the veins of the descendants of those New England missionaries ran patriotic and revolutionary blood. The willful, incompetent Queen was deposed and liberty proclaimed and established by them, and that independence acknowledged by this great nation; but the wise ruler of this *great* nation had given place to another power. A great

scrutable, obstinate power, and the mandate went forth that the mulatto Queen ust be restored to rule again over those fair islands. Has she been restored? The ood of '76 says: "No! Though we are but a few hundred intrenched here, we ill maintain our liberties! Worst comes to worst, we will fight. We defy you!" Woolgrowers, *will we* fight for our rights, for our flocks, for fair play? Will we ith our means, our influence, and our votes, will we, like President Dole, defy esar? * * *

Away down in those little islands are but a few thousand which defy with shot id shell. There are a million or more of us; let us defy with voice and vote, and we can not now avert the coming blow, in the end we will be victorious.

If we believed the protection taken from us by reason of "free wool" would eapen clothing to the 65,000,000 of our countrymen, our lips would be silent, but, the contrary, we know that gold will be drained from us to enrich an alien people, me of which wish us none too well.

CHAPTER SEVENTH.

THE WILSON BILL A MENACE TO THE AGRICULTURAL INDUSTRIES OF THE COUNTRY.

[*Compiled by William Lawrence, President of the National Woolgrowers' Association.*]

I. *American farmers should have the privilege of supplying all farm products in which there can be fair competition and which under adequate protection can be sufficiently developed to supply all our needs.*

II. *The McKinley act intended to give adequate protection to our agricultural industries has been found not quite sufficiently protective.*

III. *Statistics of agricultural exports and imports for the fiscal year 1892–1893.*

IV. *Statistics of imports for 1891 discussed in detail—*

1. *Imports of* TEA, COFFEE, COCOA, SPICES, PEPPER, AND VANILLA BEANS.

(*a*) *These are proper imports since they can not be produced here—custom house value*	*$117,123,588*
(*b*) *Add imports opium*	*1,202,375*
Total	*118,325,963*

(*c*) *The startling residue is $291,938,358. These should have been produced on our own soil.*

V. *The* FREE LIST *agricultural products of the Wilson bill—*

(*a*) *How the sugar bounty benefits all the people.*

VI. *A contrast of the duties for agricultural products provided by the McKinley act and proposed by the Wilson bill.*

VII. *The necessity for, and effect of protection for, eggs.*

THE WILSON BILL A GROSS ATTACK ON THE AGRICULTURAL INDUSTRIES OF THE COUNTRY.*

Some principles are so plain as to be almost self evident.

I. *Sound policy requires that American farmers should have the privilege of supplying all products of the soil, including all resulting from our animal industries, which may be required for consumption in this country.*

They should have this privilege because there is, in all, open, fair competition, and in such case, with ability to supply all needed, our own citizens should have the *whole American market.*

To those who have been accustomed to think the duties of the McKinley act of October 1, 1890, were *too high*, it may be interesting and instructive to know, that they are *not high enough, as they should be*, to keep out all foreign products of those classes in which there can be fair and full competition, with an ability under adequate protection in due time to supply all our people need.

* See this subject also discussed in Senate Mis. Doc. No. 35, Fifty-third Congress, second session, pp. 113, 158, 161, 222–229, 313; also in Senate Mis. Doc. No. 77, Fifty-third Congress, second session, pp. 25, 33, 82.

II. *Statistics show that our agricultural industries are not sufficiently protected even by the McKinley act.*

Yet the Wilson bill was framed with a view to reduce these duties.

These propositions will appear from what follows:

The scheme for *free wool* is part of a *general system*, and, if successful, the same policy which sustains it will *require all other farm products to be free.*

Those farmers "with small flocks of sheep" who were appealed to by the President's Message of December 6, 1887, to support the policy of free wool on the erroneous assumption that they would secure *cheaper clothing* to *compensate* them for their losses by free wool should *now learn* that *their losses* by reason of *no duties* or *low duties* on other agricultural products can have no compensation. The message of 1887 ingeniously discussed only one free article, wool; but now, the free-trade scheme has broadened until it extends to nearly all farm products.

If the sectional policy of the Wilson bill is established, it too will be broadened until American farmers will be in open competition with the cheap labor of the world as to *all* their farm products. As illustrating propositions already stated the following are presented:

III. TABLES SHOWING THE UNITED STATES AGRICULTURAL EXPORTS AND IMPORTS FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDED JUNE 30, 1893, from the U. S. Department of Agriculture, Division of Statistics, new series, report No. 111, DECEMBER, 1893.

AGRICULTURAL EXPORTS AND IMPORTS.

The official records of our foreign commerce for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1893, show a decrease in the value of agricultural products exported, as compared with 1892, by $183,974,851, while the imports of 1893 were less than those of 1892 by $12,969,671.

The subjoined tables show in detail the exports of agricultural products for 1892 and 1893, together with the imports of these products for 1891, 1892, and 1893.

Exports of the products of domestic agriculture for the years ending June 30, 1892 and 1893.

Articles.	1892.		1893.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Animals, living:				
Cattle.....number..	394,607	$35,099,095	287,094	$26,032,428
Hogs.....do....	31,963	364,081	27,375	397,163
Horses.....do....	3,226	611,188	2,967	718,607
Mules.....do....	1,965	238,591	1,634	210,278
Sheep.....do....	46,960	161,105	37,260	126,394
All other, and fowls.....do....	.....	24,161	.....	43,116
Animal matter:				
Bones, hoofs, horns, and horn tips, strips, and waste.....	.....	218,639	.....	319,848
Casings for sausages.....	.....	878,675	.....	1,409,280
Eggs.....dozen..	183,063	32,374	147,989	33,207
Glue.....pounds..	580,815	66,403	736,446	74,722
Grease, grease scraps, and all soap stock...	.....	1,298,598	.....	1,067,723
Hair, and manufactures of.....	.....	370,169	.....	459,648
Hides and skins other than furs.....	.....	1,223,895	.....	1,497,003
Honey.....	.....	78,048	.....	15,115
Oils—				
Lard.....gallons..	907,575	496,601	486,864	336,634
Other animal.....do....	278,954	144,119	212,266	106,275

Exports of the products of domestic agriculture for the years ending June 30, 1892 and 1893—Continued.

Articles.	1892.		1893.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Animal matter—Continued.				
Meat products—				
Beef products—				
Beef, canned ..... pounds..	87,028,084	$7,876,454	79,088,453	$7,222,824
Beef, fresh ..... do....	220,554,617	18,053,732	206,294,724	17,754,041
Beef, salted or pickled ..... do....	70,204,736	3,987,829	58,423,963	3,185,321
Beef, other cured ..... do....	953,712	92,524	898,920	87,776
Tallow ..... do....	89,780,010	4,425,630	61,819,153	3,129,059
Mutton ..... do....	101,463	9,022	108,214	9,175
Oleomargarine—				
Imitation butter ..... do....	1,610,837	195,587	3,479,322	416,386
The oil ..... do....	91,581,708	9,011,889	113,939,363	11,207,250
Pork products—				
Bacon ..... do....	507,919,830	39,334,933	391,758,175	35,781,470
Hams ..... do....	76,856,559	7,757,717	82,178,154	9,933,096
Pork, fresh ..... do....	377,746	30,246	912,644	79,317
Pork, salted or cured ..... do....	80,336,481	4,792,049	52,459,722	4,116,946
Lard ..... do....	460,045,776	33,201,621	365,693,501	34,643,993
Poultry and game	.....	13,828	.....	17,978
All other meat products	.....	1,220,205	.....	1,245,466
Dairy products—				
Butter ..... pounds..	15,047,246	2,445,878	8,920,107	1,672,690
Cheese ..... do....	82,100,221	7,676,657	81,350,923	7,624,648
Milk	.....	236,358	.....	274,155
Wax, bees' ..... pounds..	127,470	31,898	77,274	22,048
Wool, raw ..... do....	202,456	30,664	91,858	14,808
Total value of animals and animal matter	.....	181,730,463	.....	171,285,887
Bread and breadstuffs:				
Barley ..... bushels..	2,800,075	1,751,445	3,035,267	1,468,843
Bread and biscuits ..... pounds..	14,449,625	775,596	14,583,967	752,353
Corn ..... bushels..	75,451,849	41,590,460	46,034,904	24,587,511
Corn meal ..... barrels..	287,609	919,961	271,155	793,081
Oats ..... bushels..	9,425,078	3,842,559	2,380,653	951,920
Oatmeal ..... pounds..	20,908,190	555,957	5,762,701	160,660
Rye ..... bushels..	12,041,316	11,432,160	1,477,058	1,002,796
Rye flour ..... barrels..	4,552	22,461	2,811	10,290
Wheat ..... bushels..	157,280,351	161,399,132	117,121,109	93,534,970
Wheat flour ..... barrels..	15,196,769	75,862,283	16,620,339	75,493,347
All other breadstuffs and preparations of, used as food	.....	1,711,103	.....	1,555,883
Total value of bread and breadstuffs..	.....	299,363,117	.....	200,311,654
Cotton and cotton-seed oil:				
Cotton—				
Sea island ..... pounds..	9,074,686	1,591,464	7,983,415	1,758,756
Other unmanufactured ..... do....	2,926,145,125	256,869,777	21,204,131,711	187,070,952
Cotton-seed oil ..... gallons..	13,859,278	4,982,285	9,462,074	3,927,556
Total value of cotton and cotton-seed oil	.....	263,443,526	.....	192,757,264
Miscellaneous:				
Brown corn	.....	218,133	.....	163,105
Fruit and nuts—				
Apples, dried ..... pounds..	26,042,063	1,288,102	7,966,819	482,085
Apples, green or ripe ..... barrels..	938,743	2,407,956	408,014	1,097,967
Fruits, preserved—				
Canned	.....	1,558,820	.....	1,137,660
Other	.....	214,738	.....	224,381
All other green, ripe, or dried	.....	1,095,845	.....	882,695
Nuts	.....	60,684	.....	94,902
Hay ..... tons..	35,201	582,838	33,084	519,640
Hops ..... pounds..	12,604,686	2,420,502	11,367,030	2,695,867
Oil cake and oil-cake meal ..... do....	826,398,719	9,713,204	802,416,067	9,688,773
Oils—				
Linseed ..... gallons..	112,386	54,020	128,936	54,356
Other vegetable	.....	73,731	.....	236,101
Seeds—				
Clover ..... pounds..	19,532,411	1,636,671	8,276,966	988,809
Cotton ..... do....	12,149,261	86,549	4,431,914	35,029
Flax seed or linseed ..... bushels..	3,613,187	3,915,547	1,837,370	2,195,374
Timothy ..... pounds..	10,318,074	381,651	7,077,131	504,937
All other	.....	231,864	.....	269,580
Tobacco—				
Leaf ..... pounds..	240,716,150	20,303,245	248,367,258	22,292,704
Stems and trimmings ..... do....	14,715,927	366,800	17,715,825	599,195

Exports of the products of domestic agriculture for the years ending June 30, 1892 and 1893—Continued.

Articles.	1892.		1893.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
Miscellaneous—Continued.				
Vegetables—				
Onions ..... bushels..	59,842	58,121	57,610	$60,878
Pease and beans ..... do..	637,972	945,767	389,913	745,636
Potatoes ..... do..	557,022	361,378	845,720	700,032
Canned	.....	373,068	.....	242,284
All other, including pickles	.....	159,811	.....	149,167
Wine—				
In bottles ..... dozen..	14,384	67,686	11,128	51,654
Not in bottles ..... gallons..	655,795	371,344	708,558	369,893
All other agricultural products	.....	5,843,051	.....	4,515,872
Total value of miscellaneous products	.....	54,791,126	.....	50,998,576
RECAPITULATION.				
Animals and animal matter	.....	$181,730,463	.....	$171,285,887
Bread and breadstuffs	.....	299,363,117	.....	200,311,654
Cotton and cotton-seed oil	.....	263,443,526	.....	192,757,264
Miscellaneous products	.....	54,791,126	.....	50,998,576
Total agricultural exports	.....	799,328,232	.....	615,353,381
Total exports	.....	1,015,732,011	.....	830,876,906
Per cent of agricultural matter	.....	78·69	.....	74·06

Imports of agricultural products for the years ending June 30, 1891, 1892, and 1893.

Articles.	1891.	1892.	1893.
Sugar and molasses:			
Sugar	$105,728,216	$104,408,813	$116,255,734
Molasses	2,659,776	2,877,744	1,992,334
Sugar drainings	1,349	.....	.....
Total sugar and molasses	108,389,341	107,286,557	118,248,118
Tea, coffee, and cocoa:			
Tea	13,828,993	14,373,222	13,857,482
Coffee	96,123,777	128,041,930	80,485,558
Cocoa, and leaves and shells of	3,323,057	3,221,041	4,017,801
Unenumerated items	97,794	122,578	183,669
Total tea, coffee, and cocoa	113,373,621	145,758,771	98,544,510
Animals and their products, except wool:			
Cattle	102,978	47,466	45,682
Horses	3,265,254	2,455,868	2,388,267
Sheep	1,219,206	1,440,530	1,682,977
All other, and fowls	357,927	307,752	525,269
Bristles	1,357,938	1,455,058	1,508,258
Butter	58,541	16,549	13,479
Cheese	1,358,752	1,238,166	1,425,927
Eggs	1,185,595	522,240	392,973
Glue	497,340	495,519	567,756
Grease	430,335	271,421	419,625
Hair	2,408,733	1,685,562	2,005,796
Hides	27,930,759	26,850,218	27,347,896
Hide cuttings, etc	353,943	303,302	365,525
Hoofs, horns, etc	587,444	797,529	554,902
Meats—			
Preserved	521,322	430,048	558,285
All other	144,049	97,883	115,376
Milk	105,633	95,947	110,186
Oil, animal	5,531	12,136	21,327
Sausage skins	572,817	566,650	583,217
Unenumerated	813,873	823,964	611,351
Total animals and their products, except wool ...	43,277,970	39,913,808	41,244,073

Imports of agricultural products for the years ending June 30, 1891, 1892, and 1893—Continued.

Articles.	1891.	1892.	1893.
Fibers:			
Animal—			
Wools	$18,231,372	$19,688,108	$21,064,180
Silk, unmanufactured	19,086,436	25,059,325	29,836,986
Vegetable—			
Cotton	2,825,004	3,217,521	4,688,799
Flax	1,656,779	1,964,163	4,879,152
Hemp and all substitutes	7,949,650	7,354,088	9,061,855
Jute	3,862,858	3,021,174	2,467,828
Sisal grass and other vegetable substances	5,829,514	5,187,620	6,005,484
Fibers not elsewhere specified	1,987,904	1,597,049	1,957,236
Total fibers	61,429,517	67,089,048	76,961,520
Miscellaneous:			
Breadstuffs—			
Barley	3,222,593	1,592,040	921,605
Corn	1,651	10,752	1,265
Oats	5,056	8,224	8,897
Oatmeal	31,089	27,942	25,642
Rye	98,227	67,507	7,055
Wheat	431,940	1,955,385	707,053
Wheat flour	43,180	4,231	2,223
Breadstuffs and farinaceous substances not elsewhere specified	1,194,473	1,223,066	1,266,835
Chicory	342,517	154,954	208,884
Fruits and nuts	26,015,374	20,968,262	23,689,659
Hay	445,461	715,151	964,755
Hops	1,797,406	883,701	1,085,407
Indigo	1,600,630	1,779,716	3,137,511
Malt, barley	78,433	6,148	4,411
Oils, vegetable			
Fixed or expressed—			
Olive	733,489	876,613	891,424
Other	1,465,001	2,239,540	2,754,372
Volatile or essential	1,523,491	1,676,064	1,653,036
Opium, crude	1,202,375	1,029,203	1,186,824
Plants, trees, and shrubs	189,763	155,018	137,503
Rice and rice meal	4,559,540	3,030,883	2,790,151
Seeds	3,266,239	2,264,837	2,757,010
Spices:			
Ground	262,682	307,738	298,008
Unground—			
Nutmegs	686,019	750,813	613,743
Pepper	1,338,637	1,069,268	1,278,062
All other	865,882	920,906	1,119,197
Tobacco, leaf	13,287,004	10,332,423	14,702,440
Vanilla beans	594,744	803,696	763,935
Vegetables:			
Beans and peas	2,078,571	957,824	1,734,238
Potatoes	2,797,927	186,006	2,066,589
Pickles and sauces	511,163	421,292	454,099
All other—			
In their natural state or in salt or brine	1,067,757	563,297	691,968
Prepared or preserved	668,519	754,808	639,805
Wines:			
Champagne and other sparkling	5,615,872	4,571,816	5,579,054
Still wines—			
In casks	2,641,816	2,464,484	2,505,024
In bottles	1,749,372	1,908,203	2,121,275
Unenumerated items	177,523	130,766	132,020
Total miscellaneous	82,591,497	66,811,677	78,891,969
RECAPITULATION.			
Sugar and molasses	108,389,341	107,286,557	118,248,118
Tea, coffee, and cocoa	113,375,621	145,758,771	98,544,510
Animals and their products, except wool	43,277,970	39,913,808	41,244,073
Fibers, animal and vegetable	61,429,517	67,089,048	76,961,520
Miscellaneous	82,591,497	66,811,677	78,891,969
Total agricultural	409,061,946	426,859,861	413,890,190
Total imports	844,916,196	827,402,462	866,400,922
Per cent of agricultural matter	48.4	51.6	47.8

IV. An able writer—an editorial in the American Farmer, March 1, 1894—taking the *imports* for the fiscal *year 1891* as a basis of some comments, "because the McKinley act, in which an effort was made to *reduce the amount of importations*, went into effect in that *year*," proceeds to show THE NECESSITY OF PROTECTIVE DUTIES *for wool* and *many other farm products* in a forcible manner. He says it is "the most important matter of the day for the consideration of American farmers. The statistics show in the first place that in that year $409,061,946 in gold went out of the country for products of the soil. That is, from one-third to one-fifth of all the money in the country was paid for these articles.

"When we analyze the list we find the following articles, and their valuations, that we need not expect to produce:

Tea	$13,828,996
Coffee	96,123,777
Cocoa	3,323,057
Others	97,794
Spices and pepper	3,155,220
Vanilla beans	594,744
Total	117,123,588

"To this should be added $1,202,375 worth of opium, which we could produce but which it is not at all desirable that we should. This makes a total exception of $118,325,963, and leaves a startling remainder of $291,938,358, or in round numbers $300,000,000, valuation of articles which should have been produced on our own soil by our own farmers and the money paid to them.

"The all-important question is whether this country, or any country which has to rely on its farms to produce the greater part of its wealth, can afford to buy abroad such an immense proportion of farm products. England and Belgium may do it, because they rely on their manufactures to produce the wealth of the country and regard farming as an incidental industry. But no other country. No other country than ours attempts such economic suicide. If Italy, Russia, Austro-Hungary, France, or Germany permitted such folly as one-half of their imports to be agricultural products that they should raise at home, they would be hopelessly bankrupted inside of ten years. Their statesmen, bad as they may be in other respects, are incapable of such ruinous nonsense as this. Over a century ago France recognized that it was national impoverishment to buy foreign sugar and determined that, cost what it would, she would find some way to produce it at home, and after years of costly effort finally developed the beet-sugar industry. One of the first steps taken by Germany after she became a nation twenty-four years ago was to do the same, and Austria and Italy followed close in her footsteps.

"For us to devote ourselves to raising wheat and corn and the like to sell abroad at little profit or absolute loss and buy back $300,000,000 worth a year of things upon which foreign farmers make a high profit is the most absurd policy that ever an intelligent people followed. How foreign economists must laugh in their sleeves to see us foolishly playing their game to their enrichment and our impoverishment!"

The free list of the Wilson bill of the House of Representatives.

: free list of the Wilson bill contains the following agricultural es which are producible in the United States:

e.	Dandelion root.	Olives.
.	Eggs.	Opium.
en.	Ergot.	Orange and lemon peel.
n.	Farina.	Peas.
ls, breeding.	Feathers.	Plants, trees, and shrubs.
.	Fibers, tampico, jute, manila, sisal, etc.	Quills.
s for dyeing and tan-		Saffron and safflower.
.	Fruits, green, ripe, or dried.	Sauerkraut.
hams, beef, mutton,	Grease and oils.	Sausage skins.
.	Hides.	Seeds.
f Gilead.	Hoofs.	Silk, raw, or partly manufactured.
ax.	Hair of animals.	
nd fowls.	Lard.	Straw.
s,	Lemon juice, etc.	Sugars not above 160.
corn.	Licorice.	Tallow.
ge.	Madder.	Teazles.
y.	Marshmallow.	Tobacco stems.
	Milk.	Timber, lumber, and woods.
ood.	Oils, vegetable, essential, distilled, or expressed.	Wool and hair.
.		Yams.
ts.		

educes the duty, sometimes to a merely nominal rate, on the fol- g:

ls.	Honey.	Figs.
heat.	Hops.	Filberts and walnuts.
	Onions.	Peanuts.
	Potatoes.	Poultry.
	Castor beans.	Mustard.
.	Flaxseed.	Cayenne pepper.
.	Vegetables in natural state.	Sage.
	Grapes.	Vinegar.
.	Plums, prunes.	Osier or willow.
.	Oranges.	Sumac.
peas, etc., preserved	Lemons.	Tobacco.
ckled.	Limes.	Flax.
	Fruits, preserved.	Hemp.

tudy of the above lists will show that they include about every- that the farmer sees much chance of profit in, and that the men ramed the bill labored desperately to see that no farmer should e. Had they sought out the manufacturers so persistently and k at them so viciously, they would have closed up every factory country.

HOW THE SUGAR BOUNTY BENEFITS THE WHOLE COUNTRY.

[From the Cleveland Leader, February, 1894.]

AN ILLUMINATED FACT.

re are many interesting and instructive points of view from which riff question can be seen and studied.

e a ton of bar iron as an illustration. It is made in the United s of America. How many men, how many women, how many lit- ldren, what city or town or State are benefited directly and remotely se of the fact that it is made? This is an important question, but question that is difficult to answer. The material benefits which

come from a single ton of common bar iron in the way of bread and meat, necessities, and luxuries, are well nigh incalculable. And so it is with every product of the field and of every product of the factory.

Sugar is grown in Louisiana, some $40,000,000 worth every year. Under the McKinley law American sugar is protected by a bounty Foreign sugar comes in free. The growers of American sugar, however, are paid a premium from the national Treasury. Their own country gives them a chance. It doesn't discriminate against them. The men who drew and passed the McKinley bill said to them:

"Go on. Plant and reap your crop and we shall take care of you. We know that you can't compete with Cuba and the Hawaiian Islands. We don't want you to. You are Democrats and we are Republicans but we are all Americans. Increase your acreage, invent new machinery, improve your processes, and by and by America will make all of its own sugar."

And the planters went forward and raised all the cane they could. To-day they are drawing between nine and ten million a year from the national Treasury. In the meantime sugar has become cheap and the people have been greatly profited thereby.

But there is yet another point of view in respect to sugar. Men who grow cane are buyers of American products and merchandise. They grow sugar because there is a bounty. That is a fact entirely beyond dispute. If there were no bounty they would engage in some other branch of agriculture. But they produce sugar. They haven't the time or the inclination to produce anything else. Therefore they buy many things which they need and must have. Moreover, they have the money to pay. They buy meat, wheat, coal, clothing, machinery, etc. They are an important market in themselves. They have tabulated their necessities and their purchases and have given the result to Congress as an argument. "We grow $40,000,000 worth of sugar a year," say the Louisiana planters. "We buy $30,000,000 of food, clothing, and machinery. Certainly our bounty is not only a benefit to us but to the whole country."

The statement of their purchases, made by the planters, is of singular interest at this juncture. It proves the wisdom of the Republican policy of protection to American interest. With pleasure, therefore, we submit the statement:

$1,200,000 of cooperage from Ohio and Michigan.

$510,000 of cow peas from the Carolinas, Georgia, and Tennessee.

$300,000 of oils, paints, and lime from Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Alabama.

$6,000,000 of machinery and implements from Missouri, Pennsylvania, New York, and Illinois.

$1,800,000 of boots and shoes from Massachusetts, Missouri, and Illinois.

$2,400,000 of clothing from New York, Illinois, and Missouri.

$1,500,000 of sundries from all the Union.

$1,200,000 of coal from Pennsylvania and Alabama.

$2,400,000 of mules and horses from Kentucky, Tennessee, Indiana, and Missouri.

$4,200,000 of breadstuffs from Minnesota, Missouri, and Kansas.

$3,600,000 of meats from Ohio, Illinois, Kansas, Nebraska, and Texas.

$4.800,000 of corn, oats, and hay, from Kansas, Missouri, Illinois, and Iowa.

This statement is a long and strong story in itself. It proves a *principle*. It traces benefits. It elaborates and illuminates the patriotic

and profitable policy of the Republican party. The people living in the sugar district of Louisiana spend their money freely and almost everywhere within this country. And so it is with iron, wool, coal, lumber, salt, and all other products and manufactures.

Give Americans, white or black, rich or poor, Republicans or Democrats, a full and fair chance in their own country.

VI. *A contrast of the McKinley act duties and the Wilson bill duties on farm products.*

The McKinley act of October 1, 1890, was intended to give "full and adequte protection" for all agricultural products—that is with the bounties it provides for sugar, intended ultimately to develop the production of cane, beet, sorghum, and maple sugar sufficiently to supply all American needs.

The Wilson bill strikes a ruinous blow at agricultural products of the Northern and Western States.

This will be seen by a contrast of the Wilson and McKinley duties on farm products.

The farmers of the South who raise sugar, rice, oranges, lemons, and peanuts, are given no greater protection by the Wilson bill than by the McKinley law, but they get fully as much. All the other American farmers get much less. Here is a comparative table of the duties on live stock for a starter:

	McKinley.	Wilson.
	Per head.	*Per cent.*
Horses, mules	$30.00	20
Cattle	10.00	20
Hogs	1.50	20
Sheep	1.50	20

The Wilson bill reduces duty on a $100 horse $10, on a $30 steer $4 That is one sample. The following table of duties on breadstuffs, provisions, vegetables, fruit, and dairy products, which are the principal sources of revenue for the Northern farmers, is even more instructive:

	McKinley.	Wilson.
Barley	30 cents per bushel	20 per cent.
Buckwheat	15 cents per bushel	Do.
Corn	do	Do.
Corn meal	20 cents per bushel	Do.
Oats	15 cents per bushel	Do.
Rye	10 cents per bushel	Do.
Wheat	25 cents per bushel	Do.
Beans	40 cents per bushel	Do.
Cabbage	3 cents each	10 per cent.
Eggs	5 cents per dozen	Free.
Hay	$4 a ton	$2 a ton.
Hops	15 cents per pound	8 cents per pound.
Onions	40 cents per bushel	20 cents per bushel.
Potatoes	25 cents per bushel	10 cents per bushel.
Other vegetables	do	Do.
Straw	30 per cent	Free.
Apples	25 cents per bushel	Do.
Grapes	60 cents per barrel	20 per cent.
Bacon and hams	5 cents per pound	Free.
Beef, mutton, pork	2 cents per pound	Do.
Lard	do	Do.
Poultry	3 and 5 cents per pound	2 and 3 cents per pound.
Tallow	1 cent per pound	Free.
Wool	11 cents per pound	Do.
Butter	6 cents per pound	4 cents per pound.
Cheese	do	25 per bent.

Computing the *ad valorem* duties of the Wilson bill upon the present market quotations we find that a cut of 20 cents a bushel is made on barley, 8 cents on corn, 13 cents on wheat, 9 cents on oats, 15 cents on potatoes, 25 cents on apples, 20 cents on onions, 7 cents a pound on hops, $2 a ton or 50 per cent on hay, and 5 cents a dozen on eggs. For a wonder the *ad valorem* duty on beans amounts to just 40 cents a bushel, the same as the McKinley law provides, and the same is true of rye. Free wool means a cut of 11 cents a pound and a loss of millions of dollars to the Northern farmers, while big reductions are also made on butter, cheese, lard, tallow, and poultry. These figures show how the Northern farmer has been treated. Now let us look at a table of Southern farm products. It is as follows:

	McKinley.	Wilson.
Rice, cleaned	2 cents per pound	1⅛ cents per pound.
Rice, uncleaned	1¼ cents per pound	1 cent per pound.
Rice, paddy	¾ cent per pound	¾ cent per pound.
Rice flour and meal	¾ cent per pound	¾ cent per pound.
Oranges, in packages	10 cents per cubic foot	10 cents per cubic foot.
Oranges, per 1,000	$1.50	$1.50.
Lemons, per 1,000	$1.50	$1.50.
Peanuts, per pound	1 and 1½ cents	1 and 1½ cents.
Sugar, bounty	2 cents per pound	2 cents.

The Ohio Farmer on the Wilson Bill.

There has been a cut of the duty on rice from an average of 1⅝ cents a pound to an average of 1¼ cents, but inasmuch as the duty is fully 100 per cent under the McKinley law the cut leaves the rice planters with a very comfortable protection of about 75 per cent ad valorem. The Wilson bill makes no change in the duty on oranges and lemons, which are raised by the planters in Florida, or upon peanuts, which are the products of hundreds of acres of plantations in various Southern States. The sugar bounty of 2 cents a pound created by the McKinley law for the planters of Louisiana is to be left undisturbed by the Wilson bill for eight years. It is apparent that the farmers of the South have little cause to complain, but we are sorry to say we can not congratulate the farmers of the North on the same score.

As showing the public sentiment, the following is given from the Ohio Farmer of February 22, 1894:

Look at this list of Northern farm products left *absolutely free* and unprotected, with not even a revenue tariff on one of them: Apples, bacon, beef, eggs, lard, pork, tallow, straw, wool, etc. Then look at this list of Southern farm products all with high protection left on them exactly, or almost exactly, as in the McKinley law: Lemons, oranges, peanuts, rice, rice flour, rice paddy, sugar, etc. Will Northern farmers submit to such flagrant sectionalism? Is there any sense in protecting lemons and oranges and letting Canada apples cross our long northern border absolutely free? Is there any logic in protecting the sugar that sweetens our pies and leaving unprotected the lard that shortens their crust? Is there any excuse for protecting pig iron that costs little human labor and leaving unprotected the wool from a flock whose development has cost the farmer's best thought and labor for thirty years? Is it a wise, economic policy to encourage sugar which we can not produce to supply one-tenth of our consumption, and destroy wool which we can produce up to our full consumption and *do* already produce up to about two thirds of our consumption? Is it not class legislation and sectionalism, too, to protect the finished products of the manufacturer and leave unprotected the finished products of the farmer north of Mason and Dixon's line?

Let the Senate committee and the Senate itself beware. Let us show some principle and method. Treat us all alike. Either give *all of us* high protection, as did the McKinley law, or give *all of us* the slight incidental protection that comes from

a pure revenue tariff, or else give *all of us* absolute free trade and raise all needed national revenues by means of internal tax on whisky, tobacco, incomes, legal documents, etc. Then we shall at least "all be in the same boat." Do not juggle with all three methods so as to beat the Northern farmer. Treat the farmer as well as you do the manufacturer or you have class legislation of the worst kind. Treat the Northern farmer exactly as you do the Southern farmer or you have sectional legislation of the most offensive sort. Northern farmers do not ask class legislation in their favor and they will not endure it to their damage and the destruction or injury of their wool, and fruit, and meat interests.

VII. The Matter of Eggs.

Many farmers—especially Western and Southern ones—have a tendency to look down upon eggs as beneath their notice, trifles for the "women folks to barter with at the stores." But the truly successful farmer is like the successful merchant and manufacturer in that he makes every edge cut, and turns everything connected with his business into money. There are factories which make but small profits on their main articles, but by careful use of waste and by-products make a good showing at the end of the year. It is so with farming. The profits on great staples, like grain and meat, are small at best, but if the farmer manages to turn all that his farm produces into money, he will have a comfortable balance at the end of the season. Every farm has much on it that can be profitably converted into eggs and poultry, that would otherwise be completely wasted. Yet, it is allowed to go to waste, and the result is that we have been buying about 16,000,000 dozen of eggs a year from foreigners and paying them the very substantial sum of $2,418,976 in American gold for them—over $200,000 a month.

Think of the absurdity of our sending clear across the Pacific—to Japan and China—for eggs, and buying them by the hundred thousand dozen! Think of our going across the Atlantic and buying hundreds of thousands of dozens from Belgium, Germany, and even far-off Italy and Austria. Yet this is what we have been doing, as the following table, from the report of the Commissioner of Statistics, will show:

Imports of eggs by countries during the year ending June 30, 1889.

From—	Quantity.	Value.
	Dozens.	
Austria Hungary	1,528	$382
Belgium	215,164	33,223
China	126,300	6,425
Denmark	74,950	11,899
France	140	24
Germany	73,355	14,119
England	4,914	879
Scotland	4,100	820
Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island	3,637,222	481,609
Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, and the Northwest Territory	11,731,864	1,864,020
British Columbia	975	86
Hongkong	15,219	780
Italy	12,468	2,078
Japan	20	5
Mexico	18,587	2,380
Netherlands	500	70
Cuba	1,503	154
Turkey in Asia	.....	5
Total	15,918,809	2,418,976

This was the result of free trade in eggs. It was quite important. In that one year alone, 1889, we bought from foreign countries almost 16,000,000 dozen eggs and paid to foreign farmers almost $2,420,000. This represented over 15 cents for each dozen of the foreign eggs. This money might much better have been paid to American farmers and given to their wives and daughters, who take care of the poultry, instead of sending it to Europe, to Canada, to Mexico, or to China. Such a large quantity, nearly 16,000,000 dozen of eggs in a year, over 1,333,000 dozen a month, over 300,000 dozen a week, nearly 50,000 dozen of foreign eggs a day in our markets, had a visible effect upon our supply. It glutted our markets and cheapened the price for American eggs.

The following table shows the ports of entry at which these were received, and indicates how the competition is with our own farmers:

Foreign eggs imported during the year ending June 30, 1889.

At—	Quantity.	Value.
	Dozen.	
Aroostook, Me	1,958	$277
Bangor, Me	546,826	68,1[illegible]
Bath, Me	385	35
Boston and Charlestown, Mass	1,938,267	270,[illegible]
Buffalo Creek, N. Y	5,740,946	930,[illegible]
Cape Vincent, N. Y	9,400	1,[illegible]
Champlain, N. Y	829,894	125,[illegible]
Corpus Christi, Tex	32	4
Cuyahoga, Ohio	600	89
Detroit, Mich	437,992	54,314
Genesee, N. Y	735	104
Gloucester, Mass	15,783	2,3[illegible]
Huron, Mich	11,777	1,4[illegible]
Key West, Fla	1,503	154
Marblehead, Mass	1,729	204
New London, Conn	316	33
New York, N. Y	392,469	63,845
Niagara, N. Y	1,412,963	240,6[illegible]
Oswegatchie, N. Y	1,020,293	141,521
Oswego, N. Y	25	5
Paso del Norte, Tex., and New Mexico	18,555	2,3[illegible]
Passamaquoddy, Me	1,122,638	1[illegible],1[illegible]
Philadelphia, Pa	.....	5
Portland and Falmouth, Me	2,681	[illegible]
Portsmouth, N. H	164	1[illegible]
Providence, R. I	30	4
Puget Sound, Wash	975	8[illegible]
Salem and Beverly, Mass	4,184	[illegible]
Sandusky, Ohio	720	[illegible]
San Francisco, Cal	126,300	6,425
Superior, Mich	7,784	1,1[illegible]
Vermont	2,256,070	377,4[illegible]
Waldoboro, Me	3,364	465
Willamette, Oreg	10,215	5[illegible]
All other customs districts	1,255	211
Total	15,918,869	2,4[illegible]

Between 1883 and 1890 there was no tariff upon eggs. The hen product of the American farmer, raised by the American farmer's wife, was sold in the American markets in open competition with the eggs laid by hens in Canada, in Austria, Belgium, China, Denmark, France, Germany, England, Scotland, Italy, Japan, Mexico, the Netherlands, and Cuba. This will be a surprise to many farmers, but it is a fact, nevertheless.

The imposition of a duty of 5 cents a dozen by the McKinley act of 1890 had the direct effect of reducing the importations, and putting at least $2,000,000 a year into the pockets of our own farmers, as the following table of comparative imports will show:

Imports of foreign eggs.

Year ending June 30.		Quantity.	Value.
		Dozens.	
1883	Under free trade	15,279,065	$2,667,604
1884		16,487,204	2,677,630
1885		16,098,450	2,476,672
1886		16,092,583	2,173,454
1887		18,936,054	1,960,396
1888		15,642,861	2,312,478
1889		15,919,809	2,418,976
1890*		15,062,796	2,074,912
1891	Protected	8,233,043	1,185,595
1892		4,188,492	522,240
1893		3,295,842	392,617

* Protected October 6, 1890, at 5 cents per dozen.

The McKinley tariff put a duty of 5 cents per dozen on foreign eggs so as to protect the farmer's egg basket, and this protection began on October 6, 1890. It made a difference at once, because we find that we imported nearly 900,000 dozen foreign eggs less that year than in 1889, when there was no protection. But look back at the figures for the next three years—for 1891, 1892, and 1893. In 1891 we bought nearly 7,000,000 dozen foreign eggs less than in 1890 even, nearly 11,000,000 dozen less in 1892, and nearly 12,000,000 dozen less in 1893.

The Wilson bill proposes to take this $2,000,000 a year out of the pockets of our farmers and give the trade back to the foreigners by admmitting eggs free.

Very few, even among farmers, or even among those engaged in the poultry business, are aware of the extent and value of the egg and poultry products of the United States, and hence how foreign competition by the slightest reduction in price injuriously affects this industry.

These facts and the statements in relation to them are chiefly copied from the American Farmer and from the American Economist.

⟨NOPSES OF THE CHAPTERS IN THE FOREGOING VOLUME.

[Prepared by William Lawrence.]

"WOOLGROWERS' APPEAL TO THE SENATE."

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IE APPEAL OF THE NATIONAL WOOLGROWERS' ASSOCIATION OF WOOL MERCHANTS, AND OTHERS, TO THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES, NOT TO PLACE WOOLS ON THE FREE LIST, BUT TO RETAIN THE PRESENT DUTIES—WITH APPENDIXES 10–12

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Mr. Brock is a learned, accurate, and reliable statistician, whose reports are recognized as entitled to absolute confidence.

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(Prepared by WILLIAM LAWRENCE.)

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* I deem it proper to express my opinion of the great ability, accuracy, and fairness of Hon. S. G. Brock and his work as chief of the Bureau of Statistics in the Treasury Department. I do not at all concur in what is said on page 28 as to his report.—WILLIAM LAWRENCE.

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1. On page 22 a reference is made to "Senate Ex. Doc. No. 1, Fifty-third Congress, *first* session." This is the title as printed. It was at the President's called session of the Senate and was laid before the Senate March 27, 1893 1
2. On page 94 the name of "Peter Pampell" is improperly there 1
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1. On page 1, in line 9 from the bottom, the figures "$85,000,000" should read "$25,000,000," or what is the same in *effect* and better, and conveys the meaning more fully, strike out the word "*besides*" and insert the word "including," leaving the figures $85,000,000 to remain. This will be seen by reference to page 22 1
2. On page 38 a reference is made to "Senate Ex. Doc. No, 1, Fifty-third Congress, *first* session," and so the document is printed. The session was the special session called in March by the President, and the document was "Laid on the table and ordered to be printed" March 27, 1893 1
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* For a valuable work on, *see* "SPECIAL REPORT ON THE CUSTOMS TARIFF LEGISLATION OF THE UNITED STATES, WITH APPENDICES," by EDWARD YOUNG, Ph.D., CHIEF OF THE BUREAU OF STATISTICS. WASHINGTON: *Government Printing Office.* 1877.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 125.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARCH 22, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. SHERMAN submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on the Judiciary is instructed to examine and report whether the simulation of coins of the United States by coins of the same weight, metal, and fineness, except as authorized by law, is made criminal by the acts defining and punishing the counterfeiting of coins of the United States or of other countries, and, if not, to report a bill to prevent and punish such simulation.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 126.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARCH 22, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Appropriations and ordered to be printed.

Mr. PETTIGREW presented the following

PAPERS RELATIVE TO CLAIM OF EDWIN H. VAN ANTWERP AND CHAS. H. BATES, U. S. SURVEYORS, FOR SURVEYING WEST BOUNDARY OF PINE RIDGE INDIAN RESERVATION, TO ACCOMPANY AMENDMENT INTENDED TO BE PROPOSED BY MR. PETTIGREW TO THE BILL (H. R. 5575) MAKING APPROPRIATIONS FOR THE SUNDRY CIVIL EXPENSES OF THE GOVERNMENT FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1895, AND FOR OTHER PURPOSES.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
GENERAL LAND OFFICE,
Huron, S. Dak., February 16, 1892.

SIR: Numerous petitions from settlers and others are on file here for an early survey of the lands not heretofore surveyed lying immediately west of and adjoining the west boundary of Pine Ridge Indian Reservation, as defined in section 1 of an act approved March 2, 1889, providing for a division of a portion of the reservation of the Sioux nation of Indians, in Dakota, into separate reservations, and for other purposes. I am also in receipt of requests from the State authorities for said surveys to facilitate the land selections to which the State is entitled under its admission act.

As the survey petitioned for and requested can not be made until said boundary is established, I respectfully ask if the establishment of that boundary can not be contracted for, payable from some available Indian appropriation, or, failing favorable consideration by the Indian Office, then and in that event out of the current appropriation for the public surveys.

This boundary is stated to be on the meridian of 103° west from Greenwich. This meridian has been connected from the north to the first standard parallel north in range 9 east of the Black Hills meridian. A simple computation from established surveys southward will give the intersection of that meridian with the first standard parallel south, in the same range, from which point of intersection a short blank line would arrive at the terminus of said boundary on the South Fork of the Cheyenne River, and thence the line could be carried south without special precautions other than those required in the running of guide meridians. Or the initial point of the boundary on the south boundary of the State could be determined from a consideration of the survey and measurement of the State boundary and of the surveys already closed to it in range 8, and westward. One or the other of

these methods would give a substantially correct position for the Indian boundary and would avoid the astronomic work usual in determination of longitude, and the largely increased cost per mile for so short a line consequent thereon. Marked as are the east boundary of the Rosebud Reservation, the south and north boundaries of the Lower Brule Reservation and the north boundary of the Pine Ridge Reservation, all recently executed, the cost of the west boundary of the Pine Ridge Reservation need not exceed $15 per mile for ordinary running, with $4 per mile extra where the line passes over lands mountainous, heavily timbered, or covered with dense underbrush. As the length of the line is apparently about 30 miles, the cost of establishment in the manner stated would be about $625.

Very respectfully,

B. H. SULLIVAN,
Surveyor-General.

Hon. T. H. CARTER,
Commissioner General Land Office,
Washington, D. C.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
GENERAL LAND OFFICE,
Huron, S. Dak., February 16, 1893.

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and north boundaries of the Lower Brule Reservation and the north boundary of the Pine Ridge Reservation, all recently executed, the cost of the west boundary of the Pine Ridge Reservation need not exceed $15 per mile for ordinary running, with $4 per mile extra where the line passes over lands mountainous, heavily timbered, or covered, with dense underbrush. As the length of the line is apparently about 39 miles, the cost of establishment in the manner stated would be about $625.

Very respectfully,

B. H. SULLIVAN,
Surveyor-General.

Hon. T. H. CARTER,
Commissioner General Land Office,
Washington, D. C.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
GENERAL LAND OFFICE,
Huron, S. Dak., April 6, 1892.

SIR: Based on applications from settlers and others for surveys to include their settlements, and from the State officers for surveys to enable them to make selections of lands to which the State is entitled under the admission act, it is my intention soon to submit for your approval joint contracts for the remainder of the apportionment of $25,000, made by you to this district out of the appropriation for surveys for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1892. The surveys to be compassed by these contracts include the regions colored red on the inclosed sketch.

There are portions of these regions which are of a very rough character, so much so as to render field operations exceedingly difficult and expensive. This is known to be the case especially in T. 7 S., R. 2 E.; T. 8 S., R. 4 E., Ts. 5 and — S., R. 5 E. To reach the settlements in such cases and to inclose all the lands which can be properly classed as "agricultural" according to the instructions for the current fiscal year, and at the same time maintain the proper order of survey imperatively required, it will be necessary to run many lines over this excessively difficult surface. Furthermore for the purposes of State land selection, lines will have to be run over surface of the character described in order to embrace lands which the State wishes to secure before trespassers have removed therefrom timber, for which such lands are chiefly valuable. This depletion of timber is proceeding at a rapid rate, to the injury of the lands which the State wishes to select. Hence the urgency of State officials for surveys.

I have endeavored to contract for all these surveys at the usual minimum and intermediate rates. My deputies have uniformly declined to take the responsibility unless provision can be inserted in their contract for increased compensation whenever it shall appear from the field notes that such should be paid. It is, of course, impossible to say in advance precisely where the instances will occur, and in view of this fact I respectfully ask that permission be given for an insertion of rates not exceeding the maximum rates, the same, of course, to apply only when the showing in the returned field notes and plats so warrants.

The interests of Government will be protected, as the matter will still rest under the control of the honorable Secretary, as required by

law, and the deputies can thus be reimbursed for any exceptional difficulties encountered in this work, as is proper.

I have before me your annual instructions of July 16, 1891, and note the presentation required when permission is asked for insertion of rates above the intermediate. I would state as above as reasons for such surveys the numerous petitions from settlers for survey of agricultural lands, and the repeated requests of State officials for surveys that the lands which the State desires to select may be secured to it, and the impossibility of meeting these demands without an allowance of increased compensation to deputies whenever the facts in the case so warrant. Relative to the lowest rates at which the work can be done I would suggest that the maximum rates be allowed, and by rigid scrutiny of returns limit the application of such rates to any desired extent when stating the account.

I urge that the request be granted, if possible, to secure for the settlers and the State the surveys for which this office has been importuned; and in that event I would ask to be instructed, in order that I in turn may instruct my deputies, as to the showings which should appear in the field notes to permit of a satisfactory statement of the deputies' accounts where rates over the intermediate rates are allowed. Provision is already made in current special instructions of this office whereby the necessary showing is obtained in the field notes where intermediate rates are proper; but no provision is made for rates in excess of these.

Referring to the diagram it is noticed that to complete said surveys it will be necessary to establish the west boundary of the Pine Ridge Indian Reservation. This is properly a charge against Indian appropriations; but if it can not be secured in that direction provision will have to be made in the joint contract now proposed. There are two methods of establishing this boundary, either of which will avoid expensive astronomic work necessary to a determination of longitude. The starting point may be determined on the south boundary of the State by a reference to the southwest angle of the State and existing measurements along the State boundary, or, again, as the 103° meridian has been connected to the first standard parallel north, its intersection with the first standard parallel south computed from the public surveys intervening; from this intersection the line can be projected southward. I may say that a rough computation indicates that these two methods assign positions to the boundary differing by less than 70 chains. I desire to be informed which, if either, of these methods shall be provided for the special instructions.

Very respectfully,

B. H. SULLIVAN,
Surveyor-General.

Hon. T. H. CARTER,
Commissioner General Land Office, Washington, D. C.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
OFFICE OF INDIAN AFFAIRS,
Washington, April 6, 1892.

SIR: I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt, by Departmental reference for report, of a communication from the Acting Commissioner of the General Land Office, dated March 1, 1892, in which he incloses copy of a letter from the U. S. surveyor-general for South Dakota,

inquiring if the establishment of the west boundary line of the Pine Ridge Indian Reservation can now be contracted for, payable from some available Indian appropriation, or if in the event of unfavorable consideration by this office the expense of such survey could be paid out of the appropriation for public surveys for the current fiscal year.

In reply, I have the honor to state that the balance of the appropriation for surveying and allotting Indian reservations for the current year is not sufficient to warrant this office in recommending further expenditures therefrom.

The office has no objection from the proposed surveys of the said western boundary of the Pine Ridge Reservation if the expense of the same be defrayed from the appropriation for public surveys. Indeed I should be glad to have it done.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

T. J. MORGAN,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
Washington, D. C., April 8, 1892.

SIR: I acknowledge the receipt of your communication of the 1st ultimo and accompanying copy of letter from the surveyor-general of South Dakota relative to the desired survey of the west boundary of the Pine Ridge Indian Reservation in said State.

In response thereto I transmit herewith copy of a communication of 6th instant from the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, to whom the matter was referred.

The Commissioner states that the balance of appropriation for surveying and allotting Indian reservations for the coming year is not sufficient to warrant his office in recommending further expenditures therefrom, but that it has no objection to the proposed survey if the same can be defrayed from the appropriation for public surveys.

Very respectfully,

JOHN W. NOBLE,
Secretary.

The COMMISSIONER OF THE GENERAL LAND OFFICE.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
GENERAL LAND OFFICE,
Washington, D. C., April 16, 1892.

SIR: Referring to your letter of February 16, 1892, relative to the necessity of establishing the west boundary of the Pine Ridge Indian Reservation in South Dakota, and inquiring if the establishment of said boundary can not now be contracted for payable from some available Indian appropriation, or from the appropriation for public surveys for the current fiscal year, you are informed as follows:

A copy of your letter of February 16, 1892, was transmitted to the Department with office letter E of March 1, 1892, requesting instructions in the matter.

I am now in receipt of departmental letter of April 8, 1892, inclosing a copy of a letter dated April 6, 1892, signed by the Commissioner of Indian Affairs. The latter officer states that the remaining unexpended balance of the appropriation for surveying and allotting Indian reservations for the current fiscal year is insufficient to warrant him in recommending further expenditures therefrom. The Commissioner, however, further states that he has no objection to the proposed survey of the west boundary of the Pine Ridge Indian Reservation, provided the expense of executing the work be defrayed from the appropriation for the survey of the public lands; in fact he would be glad to have the survey executed under said condition.

In acknowledging the receipt of office letter E of March 1, 1891, and inclosing a copy of the Indian Commissioner's letter, the Secretary of the Interior refers to the statements made by the latter, but gives no specific directions. Inclosed herewith are copies of said letters.

Also referring to your letter of April 6, 1892, in the matter of awarding contracts for proposed surveys, including several townships immediately adjoining the west boundary of the Pine Ridge Indian Reservation, you state that it will be necessary to establish said boundary in connection with the proposed surveys.

Although the expense of establishing said line is properly chargeable to the Indian appropriation, it is evident that no sufficient balance thereof is available, and that provision will have to be made therefor in the proposed joint contracts.

As the appropriation for public surveys is available for the survey of "lines of reservation," this office knows of no objection to carrying your suggestion into effect, and embodying the survey of said boundary line in the proposed contracts, the expense to be charged to the balance of your apportionment for the survey of the public lands for the current fiscal year.

You will be advised in another communication as to the proper method to be adopted in establishing the west boundary of the Pine Ridge Indian Reservation.

Very respectfully,

THOS. H. CARTER,
Commissioner.

The U. S. SURVEYOR-GENERAL,
Huron, S. Dak.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
GENERAL LAND OFFICE,
Washington, D. C., April 19, 1892.

SIR: Referring to last paragraph of your letter dated April 6 and to office letter E dated April 16, 1892, you are further advised in regard to the subject-matter as follows:

The initial point for the west boundary of the Pine Ridge Indian Reservation may be determined with sufficient accuracy by direct measurement from an established corner of the public land surveys. Existing measurements along the south boundary of the State are not regarded as entirely reliable. A better starting point may be had at intersection of one hundred and third meridian with the second standard parallel north—the second being considered more accurate than the first standard north—thence east to closing corner for fourth guide

meridian east, south to the base line, and west thereon to closing corner between ranges 14 and 15, thence south to the linear boundary of Pine Ridge Indian Reservation and west thereon to initial monument, from which point distance may be measured west (as computed) to the one hundred and third meridian. Also west on second standard and south by the Black Hills guide meridian may supply a check.

Use your own discretion in making computation, and please send copy thereof (on separate sheet) with the special instructions for information of this office.

Very respectfully,

W. M. STONE,
Acting Commissioner.

The U. S. SURVEYOR-GENERAL,
Huron, S. Dak.

YANKTON, S. DAK., *February 9, 1894.*

DEAR SIR: In the matter of difference between the First Comptroller of the Treasury and ourselves in the settlement for the work performed in surveying and marking the west line or boundary of the Pine Ridge Indian Reservation, under contract No. 85, district of South Dakota, we wish to make the following statement to you:

Preliminary to entering into this contract we had several conversations with the surveyor-general regarding the price to be paid for the work on this boundary line. There being more blank line to be run, astronomically, than mounded line, it was very evident that it could not be run for the same cost as a regular standard or meridian line work, as the Comptroller classes it in the price he has allowed us for the work. With a distinct understanding that if the honorable Commissioner of the General Land Office did not approve the price stipulated, $20 per mile, that we would not do the work for less, we signed the contract No. 85 and made the bond, and it was forwarded to the honorable Commissioner and duly approved; and we did the work according to the contract and special instructions.

Contract No. 85 embraces the survey of boundary, standard, township, and subdivision lines, at $20 for reservation boundary, $9 for base, standard meridian, and meander lines, $7 for township lines, and $5 for section and connecting lines, and the usual rates for mountainous and timber lands on the public land surveys.

We duly made return for the work, the returns were approved by the surveyor-general, and forwarded to the General Land Office, where the work was accepted by the honorable Commissioner, and an account sent to the Treasury Department, in accordance with the contract.

In official letter E, dated September 4, 1893 (inclosed herewith), we were then informed that the First Comptroller in adjusting the account in his Department had allowed us $9 per mile for this boundary line instead of $20 per mile, as stipulated in the contract. To this unjust settlement we protested, and applied to you for assistance in explaining the matter to him. The result of your kind and personal effort did not change the settlement.

We think and claim that the contract should be as binding on the Government as ourselves. At the rate allowed in the Comptroller's

adjustment we would be receiving less than $4 per mile, there being about 55 miles of blank line that was required to be run astronomically and with as much care as the mounded line, of which there are 41 miles, 74·23 chains. At $20 per mile, as stipulated in the contract, the pay would average less than $9 per mile. This is the point mostly considered at the time of making the contract.

The reduction of $461.21 by the honorable First Comptroller on the contract price for running this makes the work a considerable financial loss to us. The line of 103° west from Greenwich, covered by this contract, is a bona fide Indian reservation boundary; reference to the statutes and section creating it is mentioned in the contract. The work required in running and perpetuating the line is entirely different from that required on the public land surveys. It is run astronomically, the mounds, pits, posts, and stones are much larger than is required in the public land surveys. (*See* Special Instructions.)

Separate and complete sets of field notes and plats were required, and in every way the work is segregated from the public-lands surveys. We entered into this contract in good faith, believing that the officers of the Government did the same, and that they would pay for the same as stipulated in the contract. We were not seeking an opportunity for the privilege of paying a premium to do Government work. From the result of your personal efforts with the honorable First Comptroller we are satisfied that the Government will not fulfill its part of the contract by any act of his, and we therefore most earnestly appeal to you for relief in the amount of $461.21 through the legislative branch of the Government.

Yours, respectfully,

E. H. VAN ANTWERP,
For E. H. VAN ANTWERP and C. H. BATES,
U. S. Deputy Surveyors.

Hon. R. F. PETTIGREW,
Washington, D. C.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
GENERAL LAND OFFICE,
Huron, S. Dak., May 18, 1892.

SIR: I have the honor herewith inclosed to submit for your approval surveying contract and bond (duplicate and triplicate) No. 85, dated April 9, 1892, entered into with Edwin H. Van Antwerp and Charles H. Bates, U. S. deputy surveyors, estimated liability $6,000, payable from the appropriation for survey of public lands for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1892. Said contract is for the stated exterior and subdivisional surveys in Fall River County and in the southern portion of Custer County, S. Dak. It also provides for the establishment of the west boundary of the Pine Ridge Indian Reservation, the same being necessary for the contemplated subdivisions.

As indicating the necessity for said surveys to embrace settlements and enable the State to make selections of land to which it is entitled under the admission act, I inclose one petition from the auditor of Custer County, dated March 25, 1892, setting forth the existence of settlements in several townships, among them being townships 5 and 6 of range 9; also a petition from the auditor of Pennington County, dated March 7, 1892, setting forth the existence of settlements in township 1,

north of range 10. Reliable oral information is received here as to the existence of settlements in almost all the townships in Fall River County yet unsurveyed, and that there are townships contiguous to those settled which are in the line of settlement, which townships, following the suggestions of your letter E, dated April 20, 1891, are now included in this contract. I have been requested in person by the State officers to expedite the surveys now contracted, that the State may select the lands it desires before such lands are denuded of timber, for which certain portions are chiefly valuable. I have not asked from these officers letters to this effect, deeming those of ex-Senator G. C. Moody, Governor A. C. Mellette, and State Land Commissioner Thomas H. Ruth, forwarded by my letter of May 16, 1891, submitting certain contracts, as sufficiently expressing their wishes in this regard.

As instructed in your letter E, dated April 19, 1892, a position has been computed for the intersection of the meridian of 103° with the first standard parallel south, from which to project southwards the west boundary of the Pine Ridge Indian Reservation. The following results are obtained:

(1) From the intersection of that meridian with the second standard parallel north, eastward on that parallel to the fourth guide meridian, thence south to the Black Hills base line, thence west to the line between ranges 14 and 15, thence south to the north linear boundary of the reservation, thence west along it and the surveys in township 4 south, of range 10 east, to the line between ranges 9 and 10, substantially as suggested in your said letter; resulting position, 78·59 chains west of the standard corner to those ranges on the first standard parallel south.

(2) From the second standard parallel southward by way of the first guide meridian (between ranges 7 and 8); resulting position, 101·99 chains west of the said standard corner to ranges 9 and 10.

(3) From the second standard parallel southward by way of the line between ranges 9 and 10; resulting position differ, only 17 links from the preceding.

(4) From the west boundary along the first standard parallel south; resulting position, 100·30 chains west of the same standard corner.

The first three computations are related to the 103° meridian as established north of the Belle Fourche River; the last computation is independent of that establishment.

Relative to the second and third computations, it is noted that they indicate a remarkable agreement in the general course of the first guide meridian and the range line 12 miles east of it, and, in reasonable probability (as these lines were run at different times and by different deputies) that the general course is practically north; that the resulting position is free from errors incident to long distances over dissimilar surfaces, as, for instance, the distances considered in the first computation; and that the position agrees substantially with the check computation by way of the first standard parallel south. For these reasons the position indicated by the second and third computations is believed to be more reliable, and its adoption is recommended in case the following method, respectfully submitted, should be deemed unadvisable. This method is to carry forward the established meridian as a blank line across the intervening surveys to an actual intersection with the right bank of the south fork of the Cheyenne River, concerning the practicability of which I remark that both deputies are excellent transitmen—one of them established the one hundred and third meridian—and a transit prolongation by either (if the establishment

may be accepted as in correct position) will be free from the errors incident to computations from surveys which are admittedly somewhat discordant; and that the advantage of this method, if any, may be obtained, I have embodied it in the special instructions, duplicate of which is herewith inclosed, and I respectfully await your modification of that instruction as written, if you deem best.

Very respectfully,

B. H. SULLIVAN,
Surveyor-General.

Hon. T. H. CARTER,
Commissioner General Land Office, Washington, D. C.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
GENERAL LAND OFFICE,
Washington, D. C., May 31, 1892.

SIR: I am in receipt of your letter of May 18, 1892, transmitting contract and bond No. 85 (in duplicate), dated April 9, 1892, awarded to Edwin H. Van Antwerp and Charles H. Bates, U. S. deputy surveyors, for the survey of the exterior and subdivisional lines of designated townships situated in Fall River and Custer counties, S. Dak., and for the establishment of the west boundary of the Pine Ridge Indian Reservation; liability $6,000, payable from the apportionment made to South Dakota of the appropriation made for public surveys for the fiscal year. Special instructions to the contracting deputies, with diagram, are inclosed in your letter, as also a letter dated, Custer City, S. Dak., March 25, 1892, signed by the county auditor of Custer County, requesting the survey of certain townships. With your letter of May 19, 1892, you inclose a letter, dated Rapid City, S. Dak., signed by the county auditor of Pennington County, requesting the survey of township 1 north, range 10 east, Black Hills meridian.

You inclose said letters from the county auditors as indicating, in view of existing settlements, the necessity for the survey of the township therein named, and state that oral information received assures you as to the existence of settlements in almost all of the unsurveyed townships in Fall River County.

You have also included in said contract townships contiguous to those settled upon, under authority of letter E, of April 20, 1891. In addition to the described papers you have been requested by the State officers to expedite the surveys contracted for, to the end that the State may make selections of lands before the same are denuded of timber, for which certain portions are chiefly valuable.

In reply, you are advised that the forms of said contract and bond, as submitted, are found to have been duly and legally executed. The special instructions issued to the deputies are satisfactory.

While the letters from the county auditors making official requests for surveys in the several townships are accepted, it should be borne in mind that applications or petitions for surveys should emanate from *the settlers on the lands.* The fact, as stated by you, that the State desires to select lands in the townships named in the contract warrants me in waiving the non-compliance with existing regulations governing public surveys. It is suggested, however, that the State officials should express in writing their desire for the surveys in question, as the communications from said officers, referred to by you, as submitted with

your letter of May 16, 1891, make no reference to Fall River and Custer counties, S. Dak.

For reasons stated I have this day approved contract and bond No. 85 (in duplicate), awarded to Edwin H. Van Antwerp and Charles H. Bates, for the surveys therein provided for.

Very respectfully,

W. M. STONE,
Acting Commissioner.

The U. S. SURVEYOR-GENERAL,
Huron, S. Dak.

[Telegram.]

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
GENERAL LAND OFFICE,
Washington, D. C., May 31, 1892.

SURVEYOR-GENERAL,
Huron, South Dak.:

Contract No. 85, with Van Antwerp and Bates, approved.

W. M. STONE,
Acting Commissioner.

YANKTON, S. DAK., *December 10, 1893.*

SIR: In official letter dated September 4, 1893, we are notified that our account for surveying the public lands and the "west linear boundary of the Pine Ridge Indian Reservation," under contract No. 85, dated April 9, 1892, amounting to $4,887.95 as adjusted per General Land Office report, No. 57422, had been reduced $461.21 by you for the reason as stated in said letter:

> The amount disallowed by this office is the difference between the amount charged in the account and allowed by the General Land Office for the survey of 41 miles, 74 chains, and 23 links of Indian reservation boundary line at $20 per mile, as provided by the contract, and the amount allowed by the Comptroller for the survey of said line at $9 per mile, as fixed by law.

Again, in a communication from the First Comptroller's office, dated September 2, 1893:

> The survey of this portion of the Indian reservation was rendered necessary in order to close thereon the public surveys in several townships situated in Fall River and Custer counties, as provided for in said contract, and therefore was not a survey of the Indian reservation, but was a mere incident to the survey of public lands.

We wish to say that we entered into this contract in good faith, and had every reason to believe that the Government did the same. From our best information we recognized the line in dispute as a bona fide Indian reservation boundary; it was so stated in the contract, and reference made therein to the statute and section which created it. The character of the work required on the line is entirely different from any required on the public-land surveys. The line was required to be extended astronomically. The mounds, pits, posts, and stones are far in excess of any required on the public-land surveys, thereby requiring a far more expensive outfit to execute the work. (*See* Special instructions herewith.)

Another item of importance in connection with this work, and expense to us, was the projection of a blank line from the terminal monument of the meridian of 193° west of Greenwich, on the North Fork of the Cheyenne River, to obtain an initial point for said

boundary. This required the labor and expense of projecting a blank line astronomically, and with as much care and precision as the permanent line, for about 55 miles across the high rolling country and bad lands east of the Black Hills. This fact was considered at the time the price was fixed by the surveyor-general, and submitted to the honorable Commissioner of the General Land Office for approval.

Calculating the whole line over which careful astronomical and instrumental work was required to be done, would make the compensation therefor under the contract price at less than $9 per mile, and at the price allowed by you at less than $4 per mile. Certainly this would be a great loss to us.

In the summer of 1890 C. H. Bates surveyed the meridian of 103° west from Greenwich from the South Fork of the Cannon Ball River to the North Fork of the Cheyenne River, for which he received $30 per mile. (Contract No. 24, approved March 8, 1888.) This work required but about 40 miles of blank line to 129½ miles of mounded line. Again the same season he surveyed the meridian of 102° west from Greenwich, from the South Fork of the Cannon Ball River to the Cheyenne River, for which he received $16 per mile. (Contract No. 57, approved May 10, 1890.) This work required about 20 miles of blank line to about 106 miles of mounded line.

This line was in all respects, so far as we can learn, a similar case to the one now in question. It was run under similar circumstances, and embraced in a contract for surveying the public lands and requiring similar work in the surveying and perpetuating as the line under contract No. 85.

We are informed by the surveyor-general of North Dakota that under contract No. 12, dated April 5, 1892, that Beardsley and Dike received $30 per mile for surveying the north boundary of the Fort Berthold Indian Reservation; as near as we can learn a parallel case to the one under our contract No. 85.

The above statements are most respectfully submitted for your consideration.

In justice to ourselves, and in conformity to the wording of the contract, we pray for a reconsideration of your decision in the matter, and we be paid in full as adjusted by the General Land Office.

Very respectfully,

EDWIN H. VAN ANTWERP,
CHARLES H. BATES,
U. S. Deputy Surveyors.

The FIRST COMPTROLLER OF THE U. S. TREASURY,
Washington, D. C.

Special instructions—Contract No. 85.

U. S. SURVEYOR-GENERAL'S OFFICE,
Huron, S. Dak., April 9, 1891.

EDWIN H. VAN ANTWERP,
CHARLES H. BATES,
U. S. Deputy Surveyors, Yankton, S. Dak.:

SIRS: In addition to the printed instructions issued to all deputies having contracts with this office, the following special instructions are issued for your guidance in executing the surveys under your joint contract No. 85 of even date.

WEST LINEAR BOUNDARY OF PINE RIDGE INDIAN RESERVATION.

This boundary is that portion of the meridian of 103° west from Greenwich between the South Fork of the Cheyenne River and the north boundary of the State of Nebraska. Said meridian has been established north of and closed on the Belle

he River in township 5 north, of range 9 east (Black Hills, Montana). From oint you will project the said meridian as a blank line on a due south course most southerly intersection with the right bank of the South Fork of the nne River where you will erect an initial monument on ground not subject to ow (distance to river to be stated). From this initial monument the line will ıtinued on a due south course with half mile and mile points at each 40 and ıins until you arrive at the north boundary of the State of Nebraska, where a ıal monument will be erected. Both the blank line and the established line e run by transit; and to secure from errors due to defective collimation, each ce point will be determined as the mean of two pair of pointings in reverse ons of the instrument. You will start the blank line from a series of carefully oted observations on polaris for meridian, and similar observations will be each day when possible. Should polaris observations be not available, other ial observations possible in the daytime should be resorted to. Observations e fully recorded, as usual. The line will be double chained in all respects as led for standard lines.

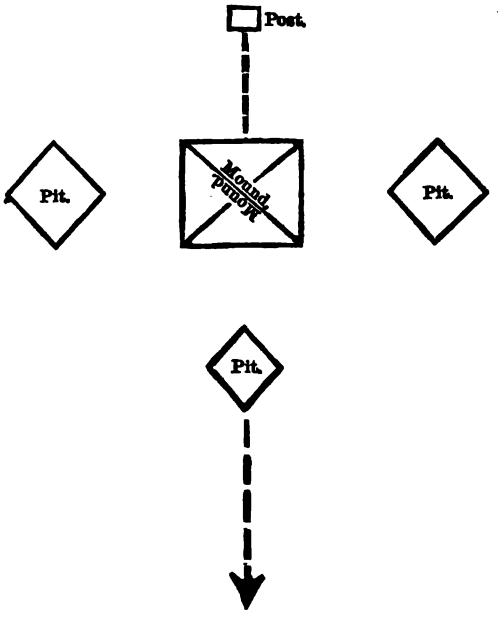
initial point will be marked by a large and conspicuous square monument of le material, with its faces directly to the cardinal points and inscribed:

I. L. 103° on N. face.

R. I. R. (for Pine Ridge Indian Reservation) on E. face, and P. L. (for public) on W. face.

ıgside of the monument will be deposited durable memorials and a glass vial ıvenient size, securely corked, containing a strip of cardboard marked: "Ini- onument, longitude 103° west from Greenwich, west boundary of Pine Ridge ı Reservation, 1892."

memorials and vial will be 1 foot in ground. The monument will be deeply ıcurely set. On line 8 links south of point will be erected a pyramidal mound ss than 6 feet base and 3 feet high, with 3 pits at least 1 foot deep, of form and ıfficient to supply the necessary earth and properly sod the mound, all arranged narginal sketch. If wood is used for the corner monument it will square at ; inches on the upper portion, will project 2 feet above ground and 3 feet below rface, and be charred between wind and soil; if of stone, the shaft must be ular form, squaring not less than 6 inches at top, projecting 1½ feet above d and 2½ feet below the surface.



terminal monument will be established substantially after the form prescribed e initial monument, except that the mound and 1 pit will be north of the : point and the 2 other pits east and west of the corner point. The monu- will be marked on the north face "T. M." (for Terminal Monument) with the

correct distance in miles, chains, and links from the initial monument; on the east face "P. R. I. R." (for Pine Ridge Indian Reservation), and P. L. on west face. The cardboard in the vial will be marked: "Terminal Monument, Pine Ridge Indian Reservation, longitude 103° W. from Greenwich, 1892," with distance from initial point.

The mile points will be marked by post or stone at mile points, upon which will be inscribed: On the north face with the number of the mile as "1 M.," etc.; on the east face with the letters "P. R. I. R.," and on the west face with the letters "P. L."

Eight links south of the mile points will be erected a pyramidal mound not less than 5 foot base, 2½ feet high, with 3 pits, all arranged as shown and above prescribed for the initial monument. Memorials will be deposited 12 inches in the ground.

The half-mile points will be established similarly, except that the mound will be not less than 4 foot base and 2 feet high.

If posts are used for the mile point they will square not less than 4 inches, be 4 feet long, and set 2½ feet in the ground; stone is preferable to wood if it can be had of suitable size and form to receive all the markings; length must not be less than 27 inches, two-thirds of which should be firmly set in ground. Post and stone for one-half mile points may be slightly less. When stone can be had for mounds it will be used jointly with the earth; the pits in these cases will be not less than 24-inch sides.

Your notes for this boundary will be under affidavits separate from your other surveys.

The FIRST COMPTROLLER:

SIR: I have examined the statement and appeal of Van Antwerp and Bates from your decision of September 2, 1893, "In the matter of the account of Van Antwerp and Bates, deputy U. S. surveyors, South Dakota," and I find that the cases therein cited are not analogous and afford no basis of comparison as precedents for the allowance and payment of the rates disallowed by you, as none of the contracts mentioned, wherein it is claimed that extreme rates not provided by law were allowed for the survey of Indian reservation boundary lines were made under and payable from appropriations for surveying the public lands, and accounts under but one of such contracts were adjusted by the First Comptroller.

The cases cited are:

(1) C. H. Bates, contract No. 24, approved March 8, 1888, under appropriation for "surveying and allotting Indian reservations, 1888." Accounts adjusted by the Second Auditor and the Second Comptroller.

(2) C. H. Bates, contract No. 57, approved May 10, 1890, for the survey of Indian reservation boundary line, under the appropriation of $100,000, "for the survey of ceded Sioux Indian lands," act of March 2, 1889 (25 Stat., p. 898, § 25). Adjusted August 7, 1891, by First Comptroller, per General Land Office Report No. 54163. Allowed at $20 per mile, $45.62; $16 per mile, $1,659.02.

(3) Beardsley & Dike, contract No. 12, dated April 5, 1892, for the survey of Indian reservation boundary line under the appropriation for "surveying and allotting for Indians at Fort Berthold Reservation," deficiency act of March 8, 1892 (27 Stat., p. 6). Accounts adjusted by Second Auditor and Second Comptroller.

Thus it appears that two of these contracts were under regular Indian appropriations which were not under the jurisdiction or control of the First Comptroller, and the accounts under them did not come before this office.

The account under contract No. 57 was adjusted and allowed in this office under Comptroller Matthews, but it differs from the account *decided* by you in that contract No. 57 was made under and payable

from a special appropriation, and not from the one for surveying the public lands as in the case in issue. That account was examined and adjusted by Mr. Sargent, and I am not aware that I ever saw or heard of it until now. I feel sure that it was not brought to the attention of Comptroller Matthews, and that he never passed upon the question of the allowance of the special rate therein, as authorized by contract No. 57.

Personally, I am of the opinion that the payment of rates in excess of those provided by law was not authorized under the special appropriation "for the survey of ceded Sioux Indian lands."

Respectfully submitted.

JAS. H. DAY.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
OFFICE OF THE FIRST COMPTROLLER,
Washington, D. C., September 4, 1893.

GENTLEMEN: Your account for surveying the public lands, 1892, under contract No. 85, of April 9, 1892, has been adjusted per General Land Office report No. 57422 and a balance found due from the United States thereon by the Comptroller of $4,426.74. Disallowed by the Comptroller, $461.21; allowed on the account by General Land Office, $4,887.95.

The amount disallowed by this office is the difference between the amount charged in the account and allowed by the General Land Office for the survey of 41 miles 74 chains and 23 links of Indian reservation boundary line at $20 per mile, as provided by the contract, and the amount allowed by the Comptroller for the survey of said line at $9 per mile, as fixed by law.

Inclosed herewith I transmit a copy of the Comptroller's decision in this case.

Respectfully, yours,

R. B. BOWLER,
First Comptroller.
By J. R. GARRISON,
Deputy Comptroller.

E. H. VAN ANTWERP and C. H. BATES, Esqs.,
U. S. Deputy Surveyors.
(Care of Surveyor-General, Huron, S. Dak.)

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, FIRST COMPTROLLER'S OFFICE,
Washington, D. C., September 2, 1893.

In the matter of the account of Van Antwerp and Bates, deputy U. S. surveyors, South Dakota.

In General Land Office report No. 57422, in favor of Van Antwerp and Bates, U. S. surveyors in South Dakota, for surveying public lands in 1892, there was allowed by the Commissioner of the General Land Office $838.56 for the survey of some 42 miles of the "west linear boundary of the Pine Ridge Indian Reservation, as defined in 25 U. S. Statutes, 888 (sec. 1), the same being on the meridian of 103° west from Greenwich," at $20 per mile, as provided in the contract.

The survey of this portion of the Indian reservation was rendered necessary in order to close thereon the public surveys in several townships situated in Fall River and Custer counties, as provided for in said contract, and therefore was not a survey of the Indian reservation, but was a mere incident to the survey of public lands. The expense, therefore, could not be charged to the appropriation for surveying

Indian reservations, and was properly chargeable to the approphiation for surveying public lands.

It is claimed by the General Land Office that because the appropriation for surveying public lands contains the words "and other surveys shall be confined to lands adapted to agriculture *and lines of reservation*," and because there is no limit placed upon the amounts allowed for surveying Indian reservations when chargeable to the appropriation for that object, the rate of $20 per mile can be paid in this case out of the appropriation for the survey of public lands. The Comptroller can not agree with that opinion of the General Land Office. Limitations upon the rates to be allowed are made by the act making the appropriation. Section 2400 of the Revised Statutes provides: "The Commissioner of the General Land Office has power, and it shall be his duty, to fix the prices per mile for public surveys, *which shall in no case exceed the maximum established by law.*"

It was held by Secretary Lamar in the case of Baker (4 L. D., 453) that "the maximum rates are established by acts making annual appropriations for that purpose," and that they can not be exceeded. It was also held by Secretary Vilas in the McDonogh case (8 L. D., 254) that the rates provided for in the appropriation act could not be exceeded in the case of the survey of a private land claim, which is considered to be a reservation, and therefore as coming within the letter of the appropriation act, which authorized the survey of "lines of reservations."

Secretary Noble, in a letter to the Commissioner of the General Land Office, dated November 19, 1892, in regard to the claim of Charles Tappan, U. S. deputy surveyor in Montana, says: "I do not know of any law that will allow this amount of compensation for the survey of the limited number of miles embraced in the survey of said tract. The rates per mile are fixed by law, and can not be exceeded." In that case a lump sum had been contracted for, which was greater than the aggregate sum at the rates stated in the appropriation act.

I deem these decisions of the Secretaries of the Interior conclusive as to the view taken of this question by the Interior Department, and do not see how it could be decided otherwise.

As the "lines of reservation" surveyed coincide with standard or meridian lines, the amount of $9 per mile, being the rate fixed in the appropriation act for such lines, will be allowed in this case, and no more.

R. B. BOWLER,
Comptroller.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 128.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARCH 28, 1894—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. PEFFER submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on Finance be, and it is hereby, instructed to prepare and report as soon as practicable a bill to repeal all laws authorizing or permitting the Secretary of the Treasury to issue bonds or other interest-bearing obligations of the Government, and to prohibit any and all such issues in future without express authority by act of Congress first had and obtained.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 129.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MARCH 28, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

The VICE-PRESIDENT presented the following

LETTER FROM THE SECRETARY OF THE CHOCTAW NATION, FORWARDING COPY OF CERTAIN ACT PASSED BY SAID NATION RELATIVE TO THE INTERNATIONAL COUNCIL OF FIVE NATIONS AND U. S. COMMISSIONERS.

POTEAU, IND. T., *March 21, 1894.*

SIR: In compliance with the act of the general council of the Choctaw Nation, I send you a certified copy of the act as passed in extra session of the council and approved January 26, 1894. Hoping it will reach you soon,

Very respectfully,

J. B. JACKSON,
Secretary.

Hon. A. E. STEVENSON,
Vice-President of the United States.

AN ACT providing for the appointment of commissioners, on the part of the Choctaw Nation, to attend an international council of five nations of the Indian Territory, and to meet the United States commissioners.

SEC. I. *Be it enacted by the general council of the Choctaw Nation assembled,* That the principal chief, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, shall appoint and commission twelve commissioners, four from each district, in addition to the present delegate, who are hereby directed and instructed to meet and confer with similar commissioners from the Cherokee, Chickasaw, Creek, and Seminole nations in an international council; and said commissioners are hereby instructed to enter a protest against any dissolution of our present tribal relations to or tenure of our lands.

SEC. II. That a copy of said protest shall be sent to the President of the United States; also the presiding officers of both Houses of the Congress of the United States, the principal chief and the delegate of the Choctaw Nation, and the United States commissioners.

SEC. III. That the said commissioners are hereby further instructed to meet the United States commissioners and receive any propositions that they may have to present, and to transmit a copy of such proposition to the principal chief.

SEC. IV. That the said commissioners shall receive each five ($5.00) dollars per day for each day of actual services and ten cents per mile

for each mile traveled going to and returning from said international council and United States commissioners, except the regular delegate; and the national auditor shall issue his warrants upon the presentations of certificates issued by the principal chief and the national treasurer shall pay the same.

SEC. V. That this act take effect and be in force from and after its passage.

Approved Jany. 26, 1894.

W. N. JONESS,
P. C. C. N.

This is to certify that the foregoing is a true and correct copy of the originial act of the general council of the Choctaw Nation, in extra session, and approved on January 26, 1894, now on file in my office at Tushkahomma, the capital of the Choctaw Nation.

Witness my hand and the great seal of the Choctaw Nation this the 21st day of March, A. D. 1894.

[SEAL.]

J. B. JACKSON,
National Secretary Choctaw Nation.

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IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 2, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. LODGE presented the following

MEMORIAL TO THE CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES SUBMITTED BY THE WOOL MERCHANTS OF BOSTON, MARCH 27, 1894.

Having waited for final and definite action by the committees of Congress in framing a bill for changes in the revenue laws, and much to our disappointment finding the bill to have come from the Senate committee full of inequalities and of especial injustice to the wool interests of the country, we feel that the time has now arrived for the wool trade of this, the acknowledged leading wool market of the country, to make itself heard with no uncertain expression of its views.

Wool is one of the prominent products of this country, and the one with which we are in especial sympathy from the character of our business. It is threatened with most serious disaster, and, as pertains especially to the vast areas of the newer portions of the country, with almost total annihilation. While millions of dollars have been invested in this great industry by our own native citizens, the capital and individual enterprise of large numbers from the thrifty peoples of northern Europe have been attracted to our land by the extraordinary facilities offered by our broad plains and temperate climate. Hence, as the woolgrower has sought the great West for the prosecution of his enterprise in this new country with his numberless flocks, he has proved to have been, while the pioneer, a most important factor in the settling up of the vast areas of our public domain from Texas to Oregon, into which have flowed multitudes from the most desirable populations of the world.

At the same time the Eastern and particularly the Middle States, being well adapted by soil and climate for the production of the choicest of wools, through years of skillful and expensive experiments and industry now produce wools which are second to none grown upon the face of the earth, and which, under favorable conditions, may supply nearly if not quite all the wool of certain classes required for the machinery of this country.

That the wool-producing industry of the United States and Territories, already the third largest of the world, needs only an adequate protection to increase rapidly in importance until it may rival the product of the most prolific of the English colonies, is shown by the fact that, under the favoring system now threatened with removal, the increase in 1893 over 1892 was over 31,000,000 pounds, bringing the product of the last year up to the enormous sum of 364,000,000 pounds. Is this

hitherto profitable and increasing business to be transferred from our own people to the hands of the foreigner? Already, in a single year, from the mere fear of such legislation, the flock of the United States has shrunk in numbers from 47,273,553 to 45,048,017. In a single year the farmers of the United States, according to the Department of Agriculture, have seen the total value of their sheep decline from $125,909,264 on January 1, 1893, to $89,186,110 on January 1, 1894, showing a shrinkage of about $37,000,000 in this brief period; and if we take into account the shrinkage in value of farm and ranch property devoted to the sheep industry during the twelve months we may say, without any fear of contradiction, that the direct loss on the fixed property of woolgrowers during one year has been not less than $50,000,000. But this is not all. It is a very moderate estimate to state that the decline in the value of the wool taken from these sheep in 1893 reduced the purchasing power of the woolgrowers by at least $20,000,000 more.

If such losses have already been inflicted by the possibility of passing this bill, who shall measure the damage to follow if the bill itself becomes a law?

It goes without saying that the interests are mutual of the woolgrower of America, the manufacturer who manipulates the staple, and all who handle wool in any of its stages or in any capacity, and that they are natural allies. Hence, what benefits the grower is for the good of all.

Therefore, frowning upon all sectional legislation, which is too apparent in the Wilson bill, with the interests of the woolgrowers of this broad land from Maine to Texas and from Georgia to Oregon in view, we, the wool merchants of Boston, without distinction of party, whose signatures are hereto affixed, representing with few exceptions the entire catalogue of wooldealers and commission merchants of this market, earnestly protest against the adoption of the inconsistent provisions of Schedule K of section No. 1, and paragraph No. 685 of section No. 2 of the measure now before the U. S. Senate known as the Wilson bill. Its adoption will be, in a great degree, destructive to the business of the woolproducer, and whereas it is his right to demand the perpetuity of his industry, its continuance will also add, we believe, to the general prosperity of the country.

Uniting with him, then, we ask that in any tariff legislation a just protection be accorded to the woolgrowers of this country, and that it be accompanied with an additional equitable compensating duty upon manufactured goods. The one can not logically be expected without the other, for otherwise, not only is the manufacturer handicapped and the grower's market destroyed, but the labor which enters so largely into the cost of the various woolen fabrics will be crushed by the still further reduction in wages which must necessarily ensue.

Furthermore, we protest against the bill in its entirety as a measure framed apparently with little practical knowledge of the needs of the various manufacturing interests as related to the "raw materials," so called. It has been made to appeal, for obvious reasons, to certain factions, who, while tacitly indorsing a party platform which in a measure condemns protection as unconstitutional, are subsidized by the very protection which some of the advocates of the bill profess so much to dislike, which is granted by the amended bill to certain industries in which they are directly or indirectly interested.

In this way it is hoped to impose upon the nation this most unequal and unpatriotic measure, one which its framers can by no means claim *to have been* prepared for "revenue only." We believe such legisla-

tion to be inimical to the public morals of the country at large, as well as unjust to many pursuits other than the one for which we especially plead.

Again, we protest because the fact is unmistakable that the country does not desire the changes proposed in this legislation, as is evidenced by the votes of the people, wherever this opportunity has been given to express their wishes in recent local elections.

We appeal to the Senators and Representatives of the country at large to use their influence and votes against the consummation of the wrongs embodied in the so-called Wilson bill, or in any similar legislation.

Chamberlin Bros. & Co.
Denny, Rice & Co.
Fenno Bros. & Childs.
Henry C. Moses.
J. Koshland & Co.
Dewey, Gould & Co.
Jeremiah Williams & Co.
Hutchins & Co.
Walter Brown's Son & Co.
R. B. Clark.
Brown & Adams.
Walter, Wilder & Co.
E. A. Adams & Co.
Salter Brothers.
G. H. Goodhue & Co.
Franklin A. Wyman.
F. H. Matthews.
Eisemann Brothers.
F. N. Graves & Co.
Wilcock & Cordingley.
George F. Willett.
R. T. Sullivan.
T. Remick & Co.
W. T. Henry, jr., & Co.
H. R. Williams.
T. A. Varney.
Luce & Manning.
W. D. Eaton & Co.
Fred. H. Putnam.
Roundy & Seaver.
Williams & Smith.
J. H. Paton.
F. L. Barrows.
C. B. Harkness.
Hecht, Shielmann & Co.
Hobbs, Teeft & Co.
Coffin & Dodd.
Edwin F. Leeds.
O. W. Purdy & Co.
Pierrepont Wise.
J. H. Wheelock.
R. B. Denney.
J. P. Boutwell.
Mauger & Avery.
H. J. Nazro, 2d.
Alex. Williams, jr., & Co.
Warren Stetson & Co.
Joseph A. Molineaux.
James Turner.
Robt. E. Mandell, rep. Geo. F. Millett.
Henry F. Smith.
H. Leanald & Co.
B. F. Bennett.
W. R. Bateman.
Geo. W. Benedict.
Chas. F. Cross & Co.
S. Bernenstok & Co.
John G. Wright.
Fred. Hartley.
Howard Eaton Hayden.
E. Frank Lewis.
Geo. H. Hendry.
W. S. & F. Cordingley.
Jacob H. Wood.
Crowell, Robie & Co.
William E. Wall.
F. M. Macomber.
Frank Dupee.
F. W. Barden & Co.
Lewis W. Lothrop.
John E. Mann.
Chas. F. Whiton.
W. H. Reed.
B. W. Putnam, jr.
W. A. Blanchard.
Harding & Caverly.
Geo. C. Moore.
R. B. Hawley, jr.
Richard Webster.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 131.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 2, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. TURPIE submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on Foreign Relations be requested to consider the expediency of considering the undertaking of further negotiations upon the subject of procuring certain modifications of the existing extradition treaty with the Russian Empire concerning the arrest and extradition of persons charged with offenses designated in said treaty as not political.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 132.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 2, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. WOLCOTT submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the President of the United States, with a view to encourage and extend our commercial relations with China and other Asiatic countries, be requested to enter into negotiations with the Republic of Mexico, looking to the coinage by the United States, at its mints, of standard Mexican dollars, under some proper agreement with the said Republic of Mexico as to seigniorage, method, and amount of said coinage; and that he be further requested to report the result of his negotiations to the Senate.

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IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 3, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. CALL submitted the following:

PUNTA GORDA, FLA., *April 3, 1894.*

Hon. WILKINSON CALL,
U. S. Senator, Washington, D. C.:

We earnestly protest against the trivial appropriation provided for Charlotte Harbor and Peace River. There are now four ocean steamships in the harbor loading with 12,000 tons of phosphate. Fifty steamships will enter here before August 1, aside from sailing crafts. This port is rapidly taking the lead of all Southern ports. Its commerce is steadily and phenomenally increasing; exports and imports last year exceed $2,500,000. This year there will be an increase of at least 25 per cent.

The interest of the commerce of the South demands deeper water. Ten thousand dollars can be of no practical service. We urge upon you the importance of having this appropriation increased to $150,000. This port three years since was scarcely known. It is the shipping outlet for the already developed phosphate mines of the great Peace River Valley. The phosphate industry is scarcely in its infancy and other mines will be rapidly developed. We call your attention to the resolution of the Florida Pebble Phosphate Miners' Association, calling upon our Senators and Representatives to secure suitable appropriations for the improvement of Charlotte Harbor, and pointing to this harbor as the natural outlet of the vast phosphate traffic of south Florida.

We would call your attention to the joint resolution of the last legislature, unanimously passed, urging upon you the necessity of a suitable appropriation for Charlotte Harbor and the mouth of the Peace River, as follows:

Whereas thousands of tons of phosphate are now annually shipped from Peace River and the adjacent country through the mouth of Peace River and thence through Charlotte Harbor to various foreign and domestic ports; and

Whereas the improvement of said waters would release commercial restrictions upon an article now necessarily used by the farmers of the United States and by the world at large; Therefore, be it

Resolved by the House of Representatives, the Senate concurring, That our Senators and Representatives in the Congress of the United States be, and they are hereby, requested to urge upon Congress the necessity of a sufficient appropriation for the improvement of the mouth of Peace River and the waters of Charlotte Harbor.

The Phosphate Miners' Association of Florida has adopted resolutions asking Congress for an appropriation of $150,000 for Charlotte Harbor. We would be glad to have a committee of Congress investigate the

commerce and needs of Charlotte Harbor. We repeat our earnest protest against the trivial appropriation reported.

J. J. SULLIVAN, *Mayor.*
JOSHU MIZELL.
E. P. AULT.
LEO. TANFKIRSCH.
JOS. WISHER.
JAS. SWIFT, *Councilman.*
ALBERT W. GILCHRIST,
Representative Desoto Co.
K. B. HARVEY,
President Board Trade.
J. J. FLYNN,
Secretary and Treasurer Board Trade.
W. STETSON & CO.,
President Board Trade.
Col. ISAAC H. TRABUE,
A. K. DEMMORY,
Democratic Executive Committee.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 134.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 3, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. PETTIGREW presented the following:

YANKTON AGENCY,
GREENWOOD, S. DAK., *March 2, 1894.*

Hon. J. K. JONES, U. S. S.,
Chairman Committee Indian Affairs:

DEAR SIR: We the undersigned chiefs, headmen, and members of the Yankton tribe of Sioux Indians do hereby petition and request you to take views in our needs, necessities, and points in connection with the treaty of 1892 now pending for its ratification in the present session of Congress.

When we signed the treaty we knew what we were doing for ourselves and for the Yankton tribe in general. We did sign it because we love and respect our families, for whom we expect a support could be made out of the sale of our surplus lands. We signed it because our old and infirm people and orphans are in the need of help and are just at the present time badly off in various ways. And also we signed it for the following reasons: We think it is a good treaty. We have had a good understanding of its provisions and the compensation. We know that we are gaining every day by signing this treaty, that is by getting interest on the money. We have had no inspiration given us to make this treaty by any white man, either outside or inside of the Yankton Reservation, like the opposition who were continually butting their heads against the doings of the Great Father with the Yankton tribe at the advice of some soreheads. (*See* Yankton Sioux Commissioners' Report, pp. 22, 23, 24, etc.). The opposition shows itself by the element of their ceaseless attacks.

By means of the treaty we want to encourage our churches and schools and have the people progress in enlightenment and civilization. We want the nation to take on new life by becoming good farmers and mechanics and professional men, and that they should all be good citizens of the United States. We do not want to become loafers and beggars like the majority of the opposition. We want the laws of the United States and the State that we live in to be recognized and observed. We do not think it is a proper thing to keep up the tribal relation—like the tribal relation and its existence now on this reservation—as the tribal relation on this reservation is an obstacle and hindrance to the advancement of civilization. For instance, the matter of the tribal relation is a bondage to a tribe of Indians where the tyrannical chiefs are principally looked upon for advice, but of course there are some exceptions. We know that the Yankton tribe is decreasing very fast, and the reason is that we live in miserable huts with dirt roofs, and can not raise crops enough to support our families, especially for the last three or four years, and our rations for that length of time could

not support us, hence the sickly ones, in need of special help and suitable food perished. At the same time we are dying fast with consumption and scrofula on account of the poor modes of living both as to dwellings and food. We are therefore anxious that this treaty should go through at once, so as to enable us to receive a sufficient sum of money as cash payment to improve us mentally and physically. Without this treaty we have no hope of prosperity, and no desire for civilization. We think it will benefit our children by associating them with white people, especially in the schools and in farming. We do not wish to see people other than Indians get this treaty mixed up and into confusion on account of personal prejudice against each other (*See* Yankton Sioux commission's report, pp. 22, 23, 24, etc.) for it is a detriment to the Government and also to us. This demoralizing influence on the part of the opposition reminds us that of the Minnesota massacre of 1862 and the Canadian war, under Louis Riel, and also the new Messiah craze, which resulted in war at Pine Ridge by the inspiration of white people on account of political and personal revenge and prejudice.

We have the honor to request you to use your influence in the passage of the bill effecting our treaty with the U. S. Government for the relinquishment of our surplus land.

We hereby certify to and corroborate the correctness of the report of the commission to treat with the Yankton tribe in 1892, and that we as a nation wish to adopt the white man's way and request you to see that justice may be done to us by ratifying the treaty of 1892 aside from the opposition.

Chief Running Bull, his x mark.
Chief Jumping Thunder, his x mark.
Chief Frank Jandron, sr., his x mark.
C. F. Picotte.
William T. Selwyn.
Robert I. Clarkson.
Pierre LaPointe.
Little Brave, his x mark.
Mathew Arnold.
Kettle, his x mark.
John Picotte.
Kills the Bear, his x mark.
J. B. Cournoyer.
Pretty Bull, his x mark.
Simon Antelope, his x mark.
John W. Howard, his x mark.
Edgar Sherman, his x mark.
John Humming Bird, his x mark.
Moses Thunder Hawk, his x mark.
Paul Flying Hawk, his x mark.
Samuel One, his x mark.
Antoine Goulet, his x mark.
James McBride, his x mark.
Thunder Horse, his x mark.
Soft Snow, his x mark.
White Dog, his x mark.
Thomas Hoffman, his x mark.
Young Bull, his x mark.
Luke Whiteman, his x mark.
Four Generation, his x mark.
Running Eagle, his x mark.
Dog Chaser, his x mark.
Fighting Bull, his x mark.
Peter Iron Necklace, his x mark.
Cloud Shield, his x mark.
Little Doctor, his x mark.
Gilbert St. Piere.
Not Afraid of Pawnees, his x mark.
Charles Brugier, his x mark.
Struck by the Omahas, his x mark.
Tallow Hat, his x mark.
Little Leg, his x mark.
Red Bird, his x mark.
Many Arrows, his x mark.
White Cowman, his x mark.
P. O'Conner, his x mark.
Henry Frederick.
John Leather.
Gray Hawk, his x mark.
Little Boy, his x mark.
Isaac Omaha, his x mark.
Duke Wellington, his x mark.
Felix Cetau, his x mark.
Stormy Tract, his x mark.
Large Forehead, his x mark.
Walks with an Arrow, his x mark.
John Istamaza, his x mark.
Moses La Plant, his x mark.

Charles La Plant, his x mark.
John Caske, his x mark.
Samuel Kegg, his x mark.
Jonah Omaha, his x mark.
Maudan, his x mark.
Little Elk, his x mark.
One Elk, his x mark.
Isaac Yellow Hair, his x mark.
Isaac Standing Cloud, his x mark.
The One They Call, his x mark.
William Hare, his x mark.
Andrew Makeke, his x mark.
Job Bloody Tomahawk, his x mark.
Charles Ree, his x mark.
David Jumping Thunder, his x mark.
Horned Horse, his x mark.
One They Afraid of, his x mark.
Red Gun, his x mark.
Wise Youngman, his x mark.
Charley Goulet.
James Reed Berry.
William Bean, jr.
Iron Hawk, his x mark.
Walking Rock, his x mark.
Pointer Israil, his x mark.
John Elder Blossom, his x mark.
Isaac Stinger, his x mark.
David Hope, his x mark.
Stephen Jones, his x mark.
Stephen Afraid of Bear, his x mark.
William Black Horse.
Alex Horned Eagle, his x mark.
Samuel St. Pierre, his x mark.
Henry Bubrena, his x mark.
Eli Hinhankiyahe, his x mark.
Henry Stinger, his x mark.
Baptiste Hope, his x mark.
Thomas Bates, his x mark.
Joseph Brugier, his x mark.
Thomas Deaf Soldier, his x mark.
Frank Butcher, his x mark.
Foot Necklace, his x mark.
Anderson Hisannineaza, his x mark.
David Ree, his x mark.
Geo. W. Rouse, his x mark.
Rufus Smith, his x mark.
Mosquito, his x mark.
Peter Picoth, his x mark.
Peter Hipanna, his x mark.
Edward Bates, his x mark.
Eagle Horned, his x mark.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 135.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 4, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. MARTIN presented the following

PETITION:

To the Fifty-third Congress of the United States:

The undersigned, a native citizen of the Republic, respectively asks to have submitted to the States for ratification ten suitably-framed sections as amendments to the Constitution, of the following import, to-wit:

I. Elections by popular vote of President, Vice-President, and United States Senators; and ineligibility of the President for re-election.

[This would put a quietus upon the "pivotal State" chicanery, wherewith office-holders, under Executive orders, now manipulate the selection of minority candidates; and would also put a stop to the scandalous purchase of Senatorial seats from corrupt legislatures.]

II. Expenditures and annual liabilities to be *limited* to a sum not exceeding $3 *per capita* of the population, except in war.

[Nothing less will ever cure the *Saturnalia* of profligate extravagance and public plunder, which "log-rolling" combines and committee-room jobbery have reduced to a system, that has become a serious menace to the Republic.]

III. Uniform duties upon *all* imported commodities not to exceed 10 per cent of actual values, and no other Federal taxation except graduated levies upon incomes and decedent estates above $1,000.

[Wealth, instead of humble labor, would then bear, as it ought, the bulk of Federal taxation. The small surplus earnings of the industrious poor would not, as now, be swept away by levies cunningly devised upon their living necessities; and the untaxed billions of the idle rich would no longer remain exempt, to the scandal of Republican government. In no other way can the "masterpieces of iniquity" and the "sums of all villainy," which disfigure the Morrill and McKinley tariff schedules, be effectually eradicated or an end be put to the chronic Congressional bribery in favor of special interests.]

IV. The entire money creating function should be exclusively resumed by the Congress; the unlimited mintage of gold and silver into legal-tender coin of convenient denominations should be made compulsory, and a complete and eternal divorcement of Government from banks and pecuniary corporations be decreed. The issuing of interest-bearing bonds in time of peace should be absolutely forbidden.

[The several provisions would rescue the Government from the clutches of the money-changing, stock-jobbing, bond-mongering leeches that now have it by the throat; would save millions annually to the overtaxed people, and purify the public service beyond computation.]

V. All Government commissions, boards, superfluous bureaus, retired lists, double pay rolls, traveling Pinkertons, official junkets, special

agents and examiners, Department trustees, roaming inquests, *et hoc genus omne*, should be unceremoniously squelched, and be rendered hereafter impossible. Every species of Government business should be placed with regular officers, having stated tenures, under good bonds, with fixed pay, and clearly defined statutory duties.

[There are many thousands of the barnacles above-named—all useless and mostly pernicious—the fungoid growth of the last thirty years, constituting, in the aggregate, a lot of peculating vermin, who annually squander many millions of the people's taxes for mere personal advantage.]*

VI. All postmasters should be elected for stated terms by the people of the civil townships in which they are located.

[This would largely reduce the most corrupting and perplexing part of Executive patronage and keep these important offices nearer the people, whose vital interests they serve.]

VII. All life offices should be abolished, the Presidential patronage largely restricted, sinecures prohibited, nepotism be made criminal, official salaries (from President to janitor) slashed one-half, and approximated with those of ordinary business; and impeachment prescribed for officials who accept free passes or other gratuities in the line of public duties.

[This would cure the office-seeking *mania*, because office-holding would cease to be *excessively lucrative*, in proportion to other employments, and the public interests would be better served, when not in competition with those of place-hunters, scrambling for exceptionally profitable work.]

VIII. Each Congress should assemble within sixty days after its election, and no leave of absence be allowed except for sickness. No member thereof should be eligible to any Federal office by appointment for four years after his election. Refusal to answer on roll call should be punished by expulsion. Single districts should be prescribed, of uniform population and in square form as near as possible. An affirmative vote of *all members*, should be required to pass a law or resolution, and a call of the yeas and nays be allowable for that purpose only, unless demanded by a majority. Secret sessions not allowed, except in public danger, and prohibiting, absolutely, any rule or Speaker's order that would prevent such majority vote at any time.

[These provisions would keep Congress to its work, in closer touch

*NOTE.—Here are some of these fads: "Commissions" to reform the Mormon religion; to prevent seal hunting; to manipulate parks; to manage grave-yards; to deepen rivers; to regulate (help) railroad steals; to gather labor statistics; to watch strikes; to ticket (and swindle) emigrants; to persecute contract laborers; to bombard the sky for rain; to guess at the weather; to muddle tariff reform; to promote irrigation; to monkey with the civil service (humbug); to inspect city slums; to discover the North Pole; to "investigate" child labor; to colonize Kongo Africa; to reclaim "Death Valley;" to develop fish-breeding; to dig foreign canals; to navigate the Dead Sea; to teach forestry (by destroying the forests); to hunt geological curios; to dicker with Indians; to fire out the Chinese (the meanest business ever undertaken); to demonetize silver; tinker broken banks; to run sugar works; to capture a deposed queen; to doctor live stock; to educate heathen; to build air ships, etc., etc., etc.

Several other *special agencies* are threatened, and are sure to come, of the following import: To rectify misfit marriages; to superintend infant baptism; to dilute lager beer and watch the whisky trust; suppress "puts" and "calls" in the grain pit; to "nationalize divorce;" to improve country roads; to adopt woman's suffrage; to put God in the Constitution; to corral the Pacific Ocean; to expand hoop-skirts (automatically); to bottle electricity, and run "corners" on infinite space. What a Congressional "commission" can't tackle would be invisible to Paul Pry. Uncle Sam has forty thousand unnecessary employés, at an average cost of $9,000 each—or a useless swag of eight millions annually.

with the people, and with shorter sessions; would prevent, in great measure, corrupt appointments as rewards for venal votes and to promote family and partnership interests; would end "filibustering" forever; would annihilate "the infamous gerrymander" and exclude from the statute book a multitude of pernicious enactments.]

IX. Republican governments should be guaranteed to all the Territories and to the District of Columbia, with the right of the people thereof to elect their legislative, executive, and judicial officers, reserving to Congress, however, the power to revise enactments. Appointments should be restricted to the place of services.

X. The making of Congressional gifts, grants, bonuses, subsidies, and gratuities of all kinds should be absolutely prohibited; also the loaning of Government credit or guaranty to favored parties or corporations; also fancy show building and official show business; also private statutes and pecuniary charters, and the fostering of trade monopolies as Government stockholder or partner or patron.

XI. Power should be expressly withheld from Congress and the President to exclude healthy immigrants (except convicts), or to prevent expatriation, or to declare aggressive war upon any State or nation, or to quarter troops in time of peace within any State against its consent, or to interfere in the conduct of any State election or elective franchise, or institution, or tax levy, or with any domestic or industrial or social or religious question whatsoever.

[Congressional meddling with these local and personal matters is a constant menace to the public peace, and leads to all sorts of immoral and flagrant invasion of the reserved rights of States and people.]

LEGRAND BYINGTON,
Petitioner.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 136.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 5, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. ALLEN submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on Finance, to whom was referred the bill (S. 1457) to repeal a part of section three of an act entitled "An act to provide for the resumption of specie payments," approved January fourteenth, eighteen hundred and seventy-five, and for other purposes, be, and is hereby, discharged from the further consideration thereof, and said bill is ordered to be placed on the Calendar for consideration by the Senate in its regular order.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 137.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 6, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. DOLPH submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on Public Buildings and Grounds, to whom was referred the bill (Senate Sixty-five) to provide for the construction of a public building at Salem, Oregon, be, and is hereby, discharged from the further consideration thereof, and said bill is ordered to be placed on the Calendar for consideration by the Senate in its regular order.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 138.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 7, 1894.—Ordered to lie on the table and be printed.

Mr. PEFFER presented the following:

THE COLUMBIA SYSTEM OF QUESTION BALLOT AND VOTING.

INTRODUCTION.

The most important step that can be taken to hasten the progress of erecting equitable laws for the whole people of our land, is to by some means ascertain what is the *will* of the people respecting the *political questions of the day*, so as each separate question can be correctly *known* to the public at all times.

To effect this important object, it does not matter whether it be by authority of the State under special laws therefor (which must first be made through special legislation), or whether by authority of an organization of citizens acting under shelter of the laws already in force.

The quickest and most certain way to achieve success regarding this important object is by authority of an organization of citizens expressly formed therefor.

The writer does pretend to claim that this proposed system of petition or question balloting or voting can be made to serve in elections generally, until special laws shall have been enacted for the purpose of carrying out this, or some similar system; but, until then, it is only intended to serve in question ballot elections, under and by authority of an organization of citizens. This system is, substantially, an improved plan of petition for ascertaining the public sentiment respecting the political issues of the day and an improved plan for presenting it to the voters through the mail.

The improvement in the petition or ballot consisting chiefly in providing a means for securing both the affirmatives and the negatives respecting a number of questions and the fundamental sectional parts of each question separately, and be upon the same ballot, and provides for the voter to vote at his home and sending his ballot or petition through the mail to the properly organized board of officers, so that the voting is securely secret.

The present laws are sufficient for enabling and in protecting an organization in carrying into effect such system efficiently.

Following are a few crude and brief outlines of what the writer thinks may be practical suggestions:

The organization may have recourse to the great register, the mail service, and all of the advantages available which are the product of the modern developments of nature's resources, and also act under shelter of the laws now in force. The reader will please be careful to properly distinguish between this proposed system of question balloting and an election for the purpose of electing public officers.

The sole object is to secure the sentiment of the voters as correctly as it is possible, that the same may be known to the public and be generally published as is the current prices of produce, stocks, bonds, etc., so that the political organizations, legislators, and the people may act understandingly in endeavoring to secure equitable laws for the whole people. Special legislation for the purpose of securing to the voice of the voters so as to be correctly and publicly known, only affords no grounds for partisan differences and therefore becomes the duty of every legislator to aid in securing said information for the people.

I propose there be one "question ballot" office in each county, ward (in cities), and towns, so that there be about 3,000 to 5,000 voters to each said office, which (it is intended) will be by authority of the law, as soon as special legislation can be had therefor, and until then shall be conducted under and by authority of an association.

Whether by authority of the State or the organization, as the case may be, the annexed proposed "sample" and "voting" question ballots are to be methodically distributed, through the mail, from said question-ballot office to the voters, so that each and every voter shall receive, in proper time, one "sample" and one "voting" question ballot.

Every voter is to vote in the room where he lodges, and on a certain appointed day and hour of the day.

The duration of time for voting may be limited to a specified number of hours or of days.

The voter is to retire to his lodging room, directly from in the presence of a witness in an adjoining room, taking with him a "sample" ballot, which it is supposed he has previously erased as he desires to vote, and he also has a "voting" ballot not erased, nor any mark upon it that would distinguish it from other ballots which the witness is to inspect for ascertaining whether there are any marks to distinguish it from other ballots.

The voter, while alone in his lodging room, and out of sight of any person and in silence, prepares his voting ballot by erasing according to the directions provided by law, or by the order of the organizations, and when he folds it as it was folded when he received it from the said office through the mail, then the voter returns into the presence of the witness, and in his view places his ballot into the "certificate envelope" and seals it. On the face of the "certificate envelope" is a printed blank certificate which the voter is to sign to certify that he has complied with the law (or rules of the organization) in his erasing and inclosing his ballot therein.

The witness is to sign said certificate also, as witness. The witness should be a legal voter residing in the same voting precinct the voter does.

If the form of certificate on the envelope be made by authority of special legislation there is no doubt but it can be made so as to hold the voter and also the witness subject to penalty for being false to their pledges signed by each severally and, it is quite probable that said certificate can be constructed by an organization so as to hold either the voter or the witness subject to fine, etc., for the violation of his pledge.

As soon as the voter has properly inclosed the ballot into the certificate envelope in the presence of the witness, and has sealed it, he also, incloses the same into another larger envelope, furnished, properly directed and postpaid to the question ballot office.

When the ballot thus prepared and inclosed and through the mail is received at the said office by the proper officer and in proper specified

form, in presence of an election board of officers, said proper officer removes the outside envelope from the certificate envelope and destroys it.

The "certificate envelope" is clipped at one end upon a line, so that the ballot can be removed without mutilating either the ballot or the said certificate.

The said certificate envelope, with the said signatures of the voter and witness upon its face, is filed away in packages alphabetically.

And the ballot, without being unfolded, is put away, to be afterward transferred to the tally sheets in regular order.

JOHN A. BALL,
Grass Valley, Cal.

[Petition to head and form a part of a "Columbia question ballot."]

To the Senators and Representatives in the United States Congress now convening:

Whereas all worthy citizens, and also all worthy legislators representing the people, agree that it is the purpose of the fundamental laws of our land that all laws should be made in accordance with the *will of the people*, which, practically, means that the majority *voice of the voters* should be the basis of our national existence; and

Whereas the present systems governing elections are such as do not provide a means by which the *sentiment of the people respecting the political issues of the day can each be separately and correctly ascertained so as to be known to the public nor to the legislator:* Now, therefore,

We, your petitioners, having a legal right to the elective franchise, residing in ——— voting precinct, in ——— (ward, town, or township), county of ———, and State of ———, members of the "Columbia Patriots," an association organized for the purpose of correctly ascertaining and for enforcing (by all honorable means) *the voice of the voters of our land respecting political questions*, do each of us, respectively, and all of us, collectively, in behalf of the whole people of our land, and in the name of the "Columbia Patriots," hereby respectfully petition your honorable body to grant to us such legislation respecting the subject of this our petition as, coupled with other like national petitions, shall be in accordance with the *majority voice of the voters* entitled to a voice in the same national political questions.

[N. B.—The voter in signing the "certificate envelope" certifies that he also petitions as above expressed, as coupled with the annexed question ballot.]

"Example Columbia question ballot."

SECTION 1.—PROTECTIVE TARIFF.

Question 1.	ARTICLE A.
I vote ..... { For ..... / Against.	Demanding that the existing laws now in force relating to the protective tariff remain substantially as they are.
Question 2.	ARTICLE B.
I vote ..... { For ..... / Against.	Demanding a low protective tariff substantially in accordance with the Wilson bill as it passed the House of Representatives.

"*Example Columbia question ballot*"—Continued.

SECTION 2.—FINANCE.

Question 3. I vote ..... { For ..... / Against . }	ARTICLE A. Demanding a graduated income tax.
Question 4. I vote ..... { For ..... / Against . }	ARTICLE B. Demanding a graduated estate tax.
Question 5. I vote ..... { For ..... / Against . }	ARTICLE C. Demanding the Government to issue bonds for, etc.
Question 6. I vote ..... { For ..... / Against . }	ARTICLE D. Demanding a free and unlimited coinage of silver.
Question 7. I vote ..... { For ..... / Against . }	ARTICLE E.
Question 8. I vote ..... { For ..... / Against . }	ARTICLE F.
Question 9. I vote ..... { For ..... / Against . }	ARTICLE G.
Question 10. I vote ..... { For ..... / Against . }	ARTICLE H. Demanding a national currency, safe, sound, and flexible, issued by the General Government only, a full legal tender for all debts, public and private.
Question 11. I vote ..... { For ..... / Against . }	ARTICLE I. Demanding, and that without the use of banking corporations.
Question 12. I vote ..... { For ..... / Against . }	ARTICLE K. And a just, equitable, and efficient means of distribution to the people at a tax not to exceed 2 per cent per annum be provided as set forth in the subtreasury plan of the Farmers' Alliance or some better system.

"*Example Columbia question ballot*"—Continued.

SECTION 2.—FINANCE—Continued.

Question 13.	ARTICLE L.
I vote..... { For..... Against.	And, by payment in discharge of its obligations and for public improvements.
Question 14.	ARTICLE M.
I vote..... { For..... Against.	Demanding that the amount of circulating medium be speedily increased to not less than $50 per capita.

SECTION 3.—FINANCE AND RECLAMATION.

Question 15.	ARTICLE A.
I vote..... { For..... Against.	Demanding that, as a means for distributing to the people the national currency issued by the Government, a sufficient amount of money be expended for the purpose of advancing "reclamation," that is to say, for the development of nature's resources to an extent commensurate with the best interests of and strictly for the whole people.
Question 16.	ARTICLE B.
I vote..... { For..... Against.	Demanding that, when the circulating medium shall have attained a circulation of $25 per capita, then the only means for distributing the currency issued by the Government shall be by payment of its own obligations, for public works, and for the execution of "reclamation" in all its branches for the welfare of the whole people as may be adopted and approved by the people from time to time in the future.

SECTION 4.—LIQUOR TRAFFIC.

Question 17.	ARTICLE A.
I vote..... { For..... Against.	Demanding that the laws now in force relating to the manufacturing and selling alcoholic liquors remain substantially as they are.
Question 18.	ARTICLE B.
I vote..... { For..... Against.	Demanding the abolishment of the manufacturing and selling of alcoholic liquors.
Question 19.	ARTICLE C.
I vote..... { For..... Against.	Demanding that the liquor traffic be regulated by local authority, in accordance with the provisions of our (California) State constitution.
Question 20.	ARTICLE D.
I vote..... { For..... Against.	Demanding the nationalization of the liquor traffic.

"*Example Columbia question ballot*"—Continued.

SECTION 4.—LIQUOR TRAFFIC—Continued.

Question 21. I vote..... { For..... Against.	ARTICLE E. Demanding such laws as will best promote and protect the interests of manufacturing and of selling alcoholic liquors.
Question 22. I vote..... { For..... Against.	ARTICLE F.

SECTION 6.—ELECTIONS.

Question 23. I vote..... { For..... Against.	ARTICLE A. Demanding that the laws which are now in force which govern elections shall be so changed and amended as to provide for the voter to vote for or against any number of political questions separately on the one "question ballot."
Question 24. I vote..... { For..... Against.	ARTICLE B. Demanding that no citizen of the United States should be deprived of the elective franchise on account of sex.
Question 25. I vote..... { For..... Against.	ARTICLE C. Demanding that the President and Vice-President of the United States and the U. S. Senators shall be elected by a direct vote of the people.

SECTION 7.—PATENTS.

Question 26. I vote..... { For..... Against.	ARTICLE A. Demanding that the laws now in force relating to the Patent Office Department remain substantially as they are.
Question 27. I vote..... { For..... Against.	ARTICLE B. Demanding that the laws governing the U. S. Patent Office Department be so changed and amended as to provide for abolishing the right for the inventor or his assignee to monopolize in the manufacturing, selling, or using of any patented article, etc., for which patents shall be issued after the date such law shall have been enacted; and, also, to provide a system that will better serve the interests of the public, and to effect awarding the inventor more just compensation for the benefits he bestows upon mankind.

Explanations respecting the "Question ballot."

It is intended that the voter shall erase one or the other of the words "*for*" or "*against*" at the left of each question, so that, by omitting the erased words, each question, as voted and when read, will express the will of the voter.

On the back of the sample ballot, in fine plain printing, the full meaning of each separate question shall be printed so as to enable the voter to understand clearly the full meaning of each and every question separately as presented by advocates and opposers, and he should have a reasonable time, during which he may be about his daily vocations and yet may have sufficient time and opportunity for examining into each question and with due deliberation do the erasing on the *sample ballot* correctly according to his will and intent.

The sample ballot has the printing on its back and is of plain paper; the proper ballot is without printing on the back and is of colored paper.

The constitution of the Columbia Patriots is to provide that each political faction may control the construction of the question they each advocate.

For example, the Prohibitionists to construct the question on prohibition, and also, the advocates of local option, the nationalization of the liquor traffic and the advocates favoring the manufacturing and selling of liquors, respectively, each have the control of constructing the questions each advocates.

GENERAL REMARKS.

"The will of the people is the law of the land."

This familiarly quoted maxim, having reference to our system of free government, is generally accepted as being literally true—that is to say, the "majority voice of the voters" is the basis of our national existence.

If this expression of sentiment is *practically true*, then the legislators, who are in fact elected by the people to represent the people, in order to do so must necessarily first know what the sentiment of the voters is respecting each separate measure when pending before any legislative body to be made into law.

The writer claims that said sentiment (the will) of the people is not at any time known, nor does our present systems of election provide for ascertaining the same.

So long as the "people's constitutional methods of expression at the polls" remain as now, and do not better provide means for the voter to express his sentiment concerning any one and every separate political question than for him to vote for one or the other of several party platforms, each containing many different measures, so long will the legislator and the public continue to be in ignorance respecting each and all political questions of the day.

Therefore the foundation of our nation's existence can not be really as claimed nor in keeping with the sentiment of the above-quoted maxim.

The writer believes that the present unsettled and distressing conditions of our nation would not now exist if the *legislator and the public at all times correctly knew the sentiment of the people respecting the principal political issues of the day.* He does not believe that any legislator, nor any other citizen of our whole nation, knows the correct sentiment of the voters, affirmatively or negatively, respecting any bill now before Congress nor of either of the fundamental parts of either bill.

But he does believe that the Master has graciously and abundantly given mankind the opportunities (through the recent developments of nature's resources) which, if properly utilized, would afford means by which the said sentiment of the voters could be ascertained almost as quickly as that of one man.

Our forefathers a hundred years ago, and even fifty years ago our fathers and brothers had no better means to secure quick traveling and quick transportation of intelligence than the old stage coach afforded, but within the last fifty years wonderful progress has been achieved in the development of the resources of nature. The old stage coach, as a means for quick travel, has been improved by from ten to fifty fold, and in respect to the transportation of intelligence, time has practically been dispensed with; for now men talk to each other as if in each other's presence, although they may be a thousand miles separated.

Any legislator may now go to the telephone and call for some leading political party manager to come to the other end of the wire, that he may ask for advice respecting some measure pending before the legislative body of which he is a member, but, there are no provisions made for the legislator to call on the voters, collectively, for their advice.

If the *sentiment of the voters respecting the principal political issues of the day were at all times known to the public*, would it not be an improvement on our present systems which do not all provide for ascertaining the sentiment of the voters, not even on a single political issue?

There is no doubt about such improved conditions being attainable, if proper endeavor was made therefor, by authority, of an organization. The writer believes that until the said sentiment of the people is *known* and legislation is had in accordance with said sentiment, there will not be any substantial abatement respecting the rigors of our country's present calamitious crisis.

For the public to *know* said sentiment is the first and most essential object to be sought for at this perilous hour, and when secured nine-tenths of the battle is won to secure legislation that will cause a general restoration to permanent prosperity.

Under the present demoralizing conditions our country is now in it is too late to depend upon securing special legislation for providing means for ascertaining the sentiment of the people, or to advance in any other form to restore the Government into the hands of the people. Because of the averseness to such principles on the part of the few who have the greatest portion of influence in legislation to first secure special laws through Congress and the legislatures for the purpose of ascertaining the said sentiment, there would be caused much time wasted in political fighting and the success respecting securing said object would be endangered; therefore it can be best and quickest achieved under authority of an organization. Neither is special legislation necessary for securing the voice of the voters, if solely for the information of the public, which can be done under authority of an organization.

While the Master has within the last fifty years so graciously and abundantly blessed mankind in giving him the knowledge that enables him to unlock the storehouses of nature, so as to have benefited mankind in so many ways that He has done, especially in the advancement in the production of wealth, why is it that the political systems underlying and being the basis of our national existence have not been changed and improved for the better at the same ratio of advancement that has been made in producing wealth?

SOME SUGGESTIONS REGARDING THE BEGINNING OF PRACTICAL WORK AFTER THE ORGANIZATION HAS BEEN COMPLETED.

This proposed system will be protected by letters patent, for the purpose of providing for an association to *own and control the use thereof*, so as to secure its use for the purpose it has been originated.

When the by-laws have been adopted and the association is otherwise complete, so as to provide chartering State branches, provisions be made for one question ballot office in each county, ward, and town, so as to provide one such office to about 3,000 to 5,000 voters.

There are to be estimates made respecting the costs per voter for holding one such (so-called) election, which expense the writer thinks will be under 10 cents per capita.

Then, through some systematic plan, solicit funds to begin practical operations, and as soon as enough money shall have been received to effect such an election in a single county, ward, or town then the county, ward, or town whose citizens shall have contributed the most liberally as to numbers shall be entitled to the necessary funds to conduct an (so-called) election under this system of question balloting.

Every county, ward, or town whose citizens to the number of 10 or more legal voters shall petition to the national department at Washington (if there be no State branch established in their State) and the petitioners will satisfactorilly vouch that they have already or will furnish sufficient money to defray the expenses of one (so-called) election, and with the petition there accompany an amount of money equal to 2 cents per each voter in their respective county, ward, or town, they shall be granted a charter and also be furnished the necessary number of "sample" and "voting" question ballots for conducting one such election.

By this method, as the funds are procured, to permit the so-called elections to be conducted in each county, ward, and town in the Union, beginning with the most liberal supporters of the system until every voter in the Union shall have voted, or had a chance to have voted, to express his sentiments on the specified issues in the ballot, which he does in this secret system.

The reader will, I trust, not fail to see the utility of the patent or copyright to shut off dishonest voting and wrong appropriation of the system.

JOHN A. BALL,
Grass Valley, Cal.

WASHINGTON, *March 24, 1894.*

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 139.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 9, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. ALLEN submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That on Monday, June fourth, eighteen hundred and ninety-four, at two o'clock postmeridian, general debate on the bill (H. R. 4864) to reduce taxation, to provide revenue for the Government, and for other purposes, shall cease and the Senate shall begin the consideration of said bill and the amendments thereto under the five-minute rule, and that on Thursday, the seventh day of June, eighteen hundred and ninety-four, at two o'clock postmeridian, the final vote shall be taken by the Senate on said bill.

O

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 9, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Rules and ordered to be printed.

Mr. MILLS submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That Rule XXII be so amended as to read as follows:

RULE XXII.

PRECEDENCE OF MOTIONS.

When a question is pending no motion shall be received but—
To adjourn,
To adjourn to a day certain, or that when the Senate adjourn, it shall be to a day certain,
To take a recess,
To proceed to the consideration of Executive business,
To lay on the table,
For the previous question,
To postpone indefinitely,
To postpone to a day certain,
To commit,
To amend;
Which several motions shall have precedence as they stand arranged; and the motions relating to adjournment, to take a recess, to proceed to the consideration of Executive business, to lay on the table, and for the previous question shall be decided without debate. And when any proposition shall have been considered by the Senate for ten days, and a motion for the previous question shall be made, it shall not be in order for the President to entertain any other motion, except one motion to adjourn, until the subject matter upon which the previous question is moved shall be finally disposed of by the Senate.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 141.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 10, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. ALLEN submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Secretary of the Interior be, and he is hereby, directed and required to inform the Senate of the names and post-office address of all pensioners of the Government whose pensions have been suspended or canceled since the fourth day of March, eighteen hundred and ninety-three, and the cause of such suspension or cancellation.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 142.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 10, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. QUAY submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Senate will hold a session on Saturday, twentyt first instant, from twelve o'clock noon until one post meridian, to hear a committee of the workingmen's organizations of the United States in opposition to the bill (House Representatives Numbered Forty-eighhundred and sixty-four), entitled "An act to reduce taxation, to provide revenue for the Government, and for other purposes."

O

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 10, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. VEST presented the following

STATEMENT OF THE SUPERVISING ARCHITECT OF THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT RELATIVE TO PUBLIC BUILDINGS.

List of completed buildings, giving cost of site and construction, and also any extension or important repairs specially appropriated for, under the control of the office of the Supervising Architect.

Location.	Title of building.	Cost.
Aberdeen, Miss	Court-house, post-office, etc	$78,763.28
Albany, N. Y	Custom-house and post-office	779,265.21
Alexandria, Va	do	73,913.64
Augusta, Ga	Court-house and post-office	143,856.53
Augusta, Me	Post-office, court-house, etc	195,761.21
Austin, Tex	Court-house and post-office	185,767.52
Auburn, N. Y	Post-office, court-house, etc	190,648.01
Astoria, Oreg	Custom-house, etc	74,986.28
Abingdon, Va	Court-house, post-office, etc	86,810.50
Atlanta, Ga	Court-house and post-office	273,734.60
Do	Extension	135,000.00
Asheville, N. C	Court-house and post-office	100,000.00
Alaska, Mary Island / Alaska, Sand Point	Custom-houses	14,896 85
Bath, Me	Custom-house and post-office	99,830.23
Bangor, Me	do	99,512.13
Barnstable, Mass	do	35,933.71
Baltimore, Md	Custom-house	759,484.62
Do	Appraisers' stores	271,672.61
Do	Court-house	210,176.97
Do	Marine hospital	121,670.84
Do	Post-office, court-house, etc	2,075,848.91
Belfast, Me	Custom-house and post-office	35,983.26
Binghamton, N. Y	Post-office and court-house	142,269.76
Boston, Mass	Custom-house	1,064,346.76
Do	Post-office and subtreasury	5,952,218.31
Boise City, Idaho	Assay office	77,252.90
Bristol, R. I	Custom-house and post-office	26,535.75
Buffalo, N. Y	do	195,839.09
Burlington, Vt	do	52,464.91
Brooklyn, N. Y	Post-office, etc	1,913,594.12
Bridgeport, Conn	Post-office	150,000.00
Brownsville, Tex	Court-house, custom-house, etc	55,000.00
Cairo, Ill	Marine hospital	91,237.13
Do	Custom-house and post-office	281,044.14
Castine, Me	do	3,750.00
Carson City, Nev	Branch mint, including original cost of machinery	426,787.66
Do	Court-house, post-office, etc	146,000.00
Charleston, W. Va	do	89,029.40
Charleston, S. C	Club-house	(*)
Do	Custom-house	2,826,592.34
Charlotte, N. C	Assay office	46,572.97
Do	Court-house and post-office	92,000.00
Chicago, Ill	Custom-house and subtreasury	5,812,601.36
Do	Marine hospital	427,560.57
Do	Appraisers' stores	405,000.00
Chelsea, Mass	Marine hospital	283,015.31

* *Used as a court-house until destroyed by earthquake.*

List of completed buildings, giving cost of site and construction, etc.—Continued.

Location.	Title of building.	Cost.
Cincinnati, Ohio	Custom-house and post-office	$5,796,418.35
Do	Marine hospital	99,988.79
Cleveland, Ohio	Custom-house, etc	168,236.30
Do	Marine hospital	98,703.66
Columbus, Ohio	Court-house, post-office, etc	321,369.76
Council Bluffs, Iowa	Post-office	246,714.70
Columbia, S. C	Court-house and post-office	412,189.17
Covington, Ky	do	294,891.49
Concord, N. H	Post-office, court-house, etc	227,141.42
Clarksburg, W. Va	Court-house, post-office, etc	115,713.18
Chandeleur Island	Quarantine station	33,063.82
Canandaigua, N. Y	Court-house and post-office. (Lease of portion of county court-house perpetual, in consideration of payment of.)	30,000.00
Chattanooga, Tenn	Court-house, post-office, etc	275,000.00
Danville, Va	do	112,299.56
Dallas, Tex	Court-house, post-office, etc.*	140,552.59
Des Moines, Iowa	Court-house and post-office	232,023.24
Denver, Colo	Mint	93,377.69
Do	Court-house, post-office, etc	635,000.00
Dayton, Ohio	Post-office	161,200.00
Detroit, Mich	Custom-house, etc	206,733.00
Do	Marine hospital	101,258.64
Dover, Del	Post-office	61,819.42
Dubuque, Iowa	Custom-house and post-office	194,687.30
Erie, Pa	do	29,000.00
Do	Custom-house, post-office, etc	252,248.55
Evansville, Ind	Marine hospital	99,969.94
Do	Custom-house and post-office	334,381.77
Ellsworth, Me	do	23,060.77
Ellis Island, N. Y	Immigration station	642,000.00
El Paso, Tex	Court-house, post-office, and custom-house	199,837.45
Fall River, Mass	Custom-house and post-office	524,427.51
Frankfort, Ky	Court-house and post-office	131,236.15
Fort Wayne, Ind	do	230,707.63
Fort Scott, Kans	do	109,357.20
Fort Smith, Ark	Court-house, post-office, etc	115,854.28
Do	U. S. jail	48,294.80
Fort Monroe, Va	Post-office	(†)
Galena, Ill	Custom-house and post-office	77,872.44
Galveston, Tex	Custom-house (old)	114,359.82
Do	Custom-house (new)	280,581.71
Grand Rapids, Mich	Court-house and post-office	211,409.03
Greensboro, N. C	Court-house, post-office, etc	66,017.43
Gloucester, Mass	Custom-house and post-office	49,858.32
Georgetown, D. C	do	60,868.15
Greenville, S. C	Court-house and post-office	102,000.00
Hartford, Conn	Custom-house and post-office	846,802.21
Harrisburg, Pa	Post-office, etc	319,984.02
Harrisonburg, Va	Court-house, post-office, etc	112,377.10
Hannibal, Mo	Post-office	135,991.78
Helena, Mont	Assay office	60,048.18
Huntsville, Ala	Court-house and post-office	98,502.99
Houston, Tex	Post-office, etc	87,867.70
Hoboken, N. J	Post-office	75,000.00
Indianapolis, Ind	Court-house and post-office (and additional land)	363,335.03
Jackson, Miss	Court-house and post-office	114,967.08
Jackson, Tenn	do	67,789.94
Jersey City, N. J	do	189,558.40
Jefferson, Tex	do	46,183.38
Jefferson City, Mo	do	153,369.83
Kalamazoo, Mich	Post-office	75,000.00
Kansas City, Mo	Custom-house, post-office, etc	373,715.05
Kennebec, Me	Custom house and post-office	2,576.06
Key West, Fla	Marine hospital	25,600.00
Do	Court-house, post-office, etc	111,000.00
Keokuk, Iowa	do	157,373.92
Knoxville, Tenn	Court-house and post-office	398,593.12
La Crosse, Wis	Court-house, post-office, etc	146,174.47
Lexington, Ky	Post-office, etc	144,023.36
Lincoln, Nebr	Court-house and post-office	198,680.33
Louisville, Ky	Custom-house, etc	269,140.75
Do	Court-house, post-office, etc	1,242,001.75
Do	Marine hospital	67,924.61
Little Rock, Ark	Court-house, post-office, etc	251,120.18
Leavenworth, Kans	do	179,283.37
Lynchburg, Va	do	134,408.25
Lancaster, Pa	Post-office	99,779.20

* Extension to this building now in course of erection.
† Old building (frame) on Government reservation.

List of completed buildings, giving cost of site and construction, etc.—Continued.

Location.	Title of building.	Cost.
Los Angeles, Cal	Court-house, post-office, etc	$153,000.60
Macon, Ga	do	127,825.33
Machias, Me	Custom-house and post-office	25,766.00
Madison, Wis	Court-house and post-office	349,968.68
Memphis, Tenn	Custom-house, court-house, and post-office	520,500.00
Do	Marine hospital	75,221.01
Middletown, Conn	Custom-house and post-office	15,676.64
Milwaukee, Wis	do	174,261.79
Mobile, Ala	do	394,564.93
Do	Marine hospital	51,400.00
Montgomery, Ala	Court-house, post-office, etc	160,410.99
Minneapolis, Minn	Post-office	641,192.77
Manchester, N. H	Post-office, court-house, etc	251,059.02
Montpelier, Vt	do	159,694.49
Marquette, Mich	Court-house, post-office, etc	164,930.57
Monroe, La	do	72,906.17
Nashville, Tenn	Custom-house and post-office	443,184.44
New Albany, Ind	Court-house and post-office	102,973.93
New Bedford, Mass	Custom-house and post-office	149,150.00
Do	Custom-house, etc	30,400.00
Newburyport, Mass	Custom-house and post-office	23,188.50
New Haven, Conn	do	183,643.50
New London, Conn	do	18,000.00
Nebraska City, Nebr	Court-house, post-office, etc	110,490.06
New Orleans, La	Custom-house and post-office	4,221,824.40
Do	Old marine hospital	510,118.50
Do	New marine hospital	99,506.76
Do	Branch mint	327,548.55
Do	Quarantine warehouse (rented)	40,044.12
Newport, R. I	Custom-house and post office	10,500.00
New York, N. Y	Custom-house	1,441,301.53
Do	Subtreasury	1,199,301.75
Do	Assay office	713,358.75
Do	Court-house and post-office	9,058,417.88
Do	Barge office	343,902.40
Norfolk, Va	Custom-house and post-office	217,403.75
Ocracoke, N. C	Marine hospital	8,927.07
Ogdensburg, N. Y	Custom-house and post-office	228,750.58
Omaha, Nebr	do	352,006.96
Oswego, N. Y	do	125,977.98
Opelousas, La	Court-house and post-office	48,359.10
Oxford, Miss	Custom-house, post-office, etc	66,737.84
Oshkosh, Wis	do	102,364.21
Owensboro, Ky	Post-office, etc	49,397.95
Ottumwa, Iowa	Post-office	42,139.70
Parkersburg, W. Va	Court-house and post-office	240,900.43
Paducah, Ky	Post-office, court-house, etc	202,109.43
Plattsburg, N. Y	Custom-house and post-office	71,425.17
Pensacola, Fla	Court-house, post-office, etc	206,791.94
Peoria, Ill	Post-office, court-house, etc	294,368.14
Petersburg, Va	Custom-house	99,664.88
Pittsburg, Pa	Court-house and post-office	1,909,600.00
Philadelphia, Pa	do	6,115,144.39
Do	Mint	281,142.60
Do	Appraiser's stores	632,675.04
Do	Custom-house, etc	370,031.02
Poughkeepsie, N. Y	Post-office	110,341.57
Portsmouth, N. H	Custom-house and post-office	164,616.91
Portland, Me	Custom-house	535,481.08
Do	Court-house and post-office	397,714.64
Do	Marine hospital	95,957.50
Portsmouth, Ohio	Post-office	74,921.00
Portland, Oreg	Custom-house and post-office	380,332.20
Port Huron, Mich	Custom-house and post-office	245,953.84
Port Townsend, Wash	Marine hospital	18,000.00
Do	Custom-house, post-office, etc	240,000.00
Providence, R. I	Custom-house and post-office,	249,[illegible]23.32
Do	Appraisers stores	10,504.00
Quincy, Ills	Post-office, court-house, etc	179,529.60
Raleigh, N. C	Court-house and post-office	349,617.40
Richmond, Va	Custom-house, etc	475,094.72
Rockland, Me	do	144,828.11
Rutland, Vt	Court-house and post-office	72,224.43
Reading, Pa	Post-office	169,991.70
Rochester, N. Y	Court-house, post-office, etc	589,500.00
Santa Fe, N. Mex	Court-house, etc	142,240.50
St. Augustine, Fla	Court-house and post-office	14,515.43
St. Louis, Mo	Custom-house and post-office	6,055,737.33
Do	Custom-house (old)	528,987.08
Do	Marine hospital	86,288.40
St. Paul, Minn	Custom-house, etc	445,355.51
San Francisco, Cal	Custom-house	778,581.40

List of completed buildings, giving cost of site and construction, etc.—Continued.

Location.	Title of building.	Cost.
San Francisco, Cal	Marine hospital	$74, 316. 64
Do	Old appraisers stores	93, 566. 75
Do	New appraisers stores	840, 000. 00
Do	Branch mint	2, 232, 512. 15
Do	Subtreasury	416, 238. 56
St. Joseph, Mo	Post-office	361, 200. 00
Salem, Mass	Custom-house and post-office	19, 271. 77
Savannah, Ga	do	170, 604. 56
Sandusky, Ohio	do	74, 987. 16
Springfield, Ill	Court-house and post-office	316, 804. 85
Suspension Bridge, N. Y	do	27, 099. 31
Springfield, Ohio	Post-office, etc	144, 790. 00
Springfield, Mass	do	150, 000. 00
Syracuse, N. Y	Post-office, court-house, etc	378, 449. 78
Shreveport, La	do	109, 471. 56
San Antonio, Tex	Court-house, post-office, etc	209, 953. 87
Sedalia, Mo	Post-office	48, 292. 38
Statesville, N. C	Court-house and post-office	77, 500. 00
Texarkana, Ark.-Tex	Court-house and post-office	109, 975. 74
Terre Haute, Ind	Post-office, etc	184, 154. 34
Toledo, Ohio	Custom-house, court-house, etc	440, 203. 49
Tyler, Tex	Court-house and post-office	56, 784. 10
Trenton, N. J	do	409, 758. 19
Topeka, Kans	do	296, 028. 54
Utica, N. Y	Custom-house and post-office	413, 499. 55
Vineyard Haven, Mass	Marine hospital, transferred from Light-House Board	5, 034. 65
Vicksburg, Miss	Court-house, post-office, and custom-house	100, 413. 67
Waco, Tex	Court-house, post-office, etc	108, 682. 17
Waldoboro, Me	Custom-house and post-office	24, 324. 68
Washington, D. C	Treasury Department	6, 166, 141. 40
Do	Bureau of Engraving and Printing	464, 850. 25
Do	Winder building, transferred from War Department	.....
Do	Building southwest corner B and New Jersey avenue SW., occupied by Coast and Marine-Hospital Service	275, 000. 00
Do	Building northwest corner B and New Jersey avenue NW., use of Congress and Executive Departments.	188, 000. 00
Do	Building adjoining southwest corner B and New Jersey avenue SE., Coast Survey.	155, 000. 00
Wheeling, W. Va	Custom-house, etc	117, 118. 64
Wilmington, Del	Custom-house and post-office	43, 069. 34
Wilmington, N. C	do	55, 000. 00
Do	Marine hospital	43, 897. 44
Do	Wharf and warehouse	25, 115. 50
Do	Post-office, custom-house, etc	197, 116. 11
Windsor, Vt	Court-house and post-office	76, 047. 32
Williamsport, Pa	Court-house, post-office, etc	221, 905. 15
Winona, Minn	do	159, 848. 63
Wichita, Kans	Post-office, court-house, etc	207, 763. 70
Wiscasset, Me	Custom-house and post-office	32, 257. 25
Total		109, 723, 362. 97
Watertown, N. Y	Post-office	74, 825. 00
Total		109, 798, 187. 97

Number of buildings 251, exclusive of sundry buildings in Alaska Territory.

MAY 22, 1893.

List of buildings now on the books of the Supervising Architect, Treasury Department, embracing buildings not commenced and those in course of erection, giving limit of cost under existing legislation and total amount appropriated.

Location.	Title.	Limit of cost.	Amount appropriated.
Akron, Ohio	Post-office	$75, 000. 00	$75, 000. 00
Alaska	Public buildings, "construction, repair, and preservation."	21, 000. 00	21, 000. 00
Alexandria, La	Post-office	60, 000. 00	60, 000. 00
Allegheny, Pa	do	425, 000. 00	250, 000. 00
Ashland, Wis	do	100, 000. 00	100, 000. 00
Atchison, Kans	do	100, 000. 00	100, 000. 00
Aurora, Ill	do	100, 000. 00	100, 000. 00
Baton Rouge, La	do	100, 000. 00	100, 000. 00

List of buildings now on the books of the Supervising Architect, etc.—Continued.

Location.	Title.	Limit of cost.	Amount appropriated.
Bay City, Mich	Court-house, post-office, and custom-house	$200,000.00	$200,000.00
Beatrice, Nebr	Post-office	65,000.00	65,000.00
Beaver Falls, Pa	do	50,000.00	50,000.00
Birmingham, Ala	Court-house and post-office	335,000.00	335,000.00
Bloomington, Ill	Post-office	75,000.00	75,000.00
Buffalo, N. Y	do	2,000,000.00	600,000.00
Burlington, Iowa	do	125,000.00	125,000.00
Camden, Ark	do	25,000.00	25,000.00
Camden, N. J	Post-office, custom-house, etc	100,000.00	100,000.00
Canton, Ohio	Post-office	100,000.00	100,000.00
Cedar Rapids, Iowa	do	130,000.00	130,000.00
Charleston, S. C	Custom-house, wharf	223,000.00	223,000.00
Do	Post-office, court-house, etc	450,000.00	400,000.00
Chester, Pa	Post-office	80,000.00	80,000.00
Chicago, Ill	Custom-house and subtreasury (appropriated March 3, 1893).	20,000.00	20,000.00
Do	Custom-house and subtreasury (extension)	100,000.00	100,000.00
Do	Government buildings, World's Columbian Exposition.	400,000.00	400,000.00
Clarksville, Tenn	Post-office	35,000.00	35,000.00
Columbus, Ga	do	100,000.00	100,000.00
Dallas, Tex	Court-house, post-office, etc. (extension)	150,000.00	150,000.00
Danville, Ill	Post-office	100,000.00	100,000.00
Davenport, Iowa	do	100,000.00	100,000.00
Detroit, Mich	Post-office, court-house, etc	1,500,000.00	1,374,635.71
Duluth, Minn	Court-house, custom-house, and post-office	270,000.00	270,000.00
Eastport, Me	Custom-house and post-office (substantially completed).	117,971.70	117,971.70
Emporia, Kans	Post-office (site only)	10,000.00	10,000.00
Fargo, N. Dak	Post-office and court-house	100,000.00	100,000.00
Fort Dodge, Iowa	Post-office	75,000.00	75,000.00
Fort Worth, Tex	do	175,000.00	175,000.00
Fremont, Nebr	do	60,000.00	60,000.00
Galesburg, Ill	do	75,000.00	75,000.00
Haverhill, Mass	do	75,000.00	75,000.00
Helena, Ark	Court-house and post-office (substantially complete.	75,000.00	75,000.00
Houlton, Me	Court-house and post-office	66,000.00	66,000.00
Jackson, Mich	Post-office	105,000.00	105,000.00
Jacksonville, Fla	Custom-house, post-office, etc	275,000.00	275,000.00
Kansas City, Mo	Court-house and post-office	1,200,000.00	750,000.00
Lafayette, Ind	Post-office	80,000.00	80,000.00
Lansing, Mich	do	125,000.00	125,000.00
Lewiston, Me	do	75,000.00	75,000.00
Lima, Ohio	do	60,000.00	60,000.00
Lowell, Mass	do	200,000.00	200,000.00
Lynn, Mass	do	125,000.00	125,000.00
Madison, Ind	do	50,000.00	50,000.00
Mankato, Minn	do	100,000.00	100,000.00
Martinsburg, W. Va	Court-house and post-office	75,000.00	75,000.00
Meridian, Miss	Post-office	50,000.00	50,000.00
Milwaukee, Wis	Post-office, court-house, and custom-house site.	400,000.00	1,200,000.00
	Building	1,200,000.00	
	Revenue from sales	264,025.00	143,126.37
	Interest, estimated	23,000.00	
Newark, N. J	Custom-house and post-office	650,000.00	450,000.00
Newberne, N. C	do	75,000.00	75,000.00
Newburg, N. Y	Post-office	100,000.00	100,000.00
New Haven, Conn	Custom-house and post-office site	25,000.00	65,000.00
	Extension	40,000.00	
New London, Conn	Post-office and custom-house	75,000.00	75,000.00
New Orleans, La	Custom-house and post-office, addition and repairs.	167,959.00	167,959.00
New York, N. Y	Appraiser's warehouse	1,155,022.48	1,155,022.48
	Court-house and post-office, repairs and improvements.	65,000.00	65,000.00
	Custom-house site	1,494,977.52	1,494,977.52
	Revenue from sale of old custom-house, when sold for building.	.....	.....
Norfolk, Va	Court-house and post-office	150,000.00	90,000.00
Omaha, Nebr	Court-house, custom-house, and post-office	1,200,000.00	875,000.00
Paris, Tex	Court-house and post-office	100,000.00	100,000.00
Paterson, N. J	Post-office	80,000.00	80,000.00
Pawtucket, R. I	do	75,000.00	75,000.00
Philadelphia, Pa	Mint	2,000,000.00	1,048,624.91
Portland, Oreg	Custom-house	750,000.00	250,000.00
Pueblo, Colo	Post-office	300,000.00	100,000.00
Racine, Wis	Custom-house and post-office	100,000.00	100,000.00
Reidsville, N. C	Post-office, court-house, and custom-house	25,000.00	25,000.00

List of buildings now on the books of the Supervising Architect, etc.—Continued

Location.	Title.	Limit of cost.	Amount appropriated.
Richmond, Ky	Post-office	$75,000.00	$75,000.00
Roanoke, Va	do	75,000.00	75,000.00
Rockford, Ill	do	100,000.00	100,000.00
Rock Island, Ill	do	75,000.00	75,000.00
Rome, Ga	do	50,000.00	50,000.00
Sacramento, Cal	Post-office, etc	300,000.00	300,000.00
Saginaw, Mich	Post-office	100,000.00	100,000.00
St. Albans, Vt	Custom-house and post-office	85,000.00	85,000.00
St. Louis, Mo	Old custom-house, repairs and improvements substantially complete.	170,000.00	170,000.00
St. Paul, Minn	Post-office, court-house, and custom-house	800,000.00	400,000.00
Salina, Kans	Post-office	75,000.00	75,000.00
San Francisco, Cal	Court-house, post-office, etc., amount paid for site.	1,054,211.29	1,250,000.00
	Building only	2,500,000.00	
San Jose, Cal	Post-office	200,000.00	200,000.00
Savannah, Ga	Court-house and post-office	400,000.00	*200,000.00
Scranton, Pa	Post-office	250,000.00	250,000.00
Sheboygan, Wis	Custom-house and post-office	50,000.00	50,000.00
Sioux City, Iowa	Court-house, post-office and custom-house	250,000.00	165,000.00
Sioux Falls, S. Dak	Custom-house and post-office	150,000.00	150,000.00
South Bend, Ind	Post-office	75,000.00	75,000.00
Springfield, Mo	Court-house and post-office	150,000.00	150,000.00
Staunton, Va	Post-office	75,000.00	75,000.00
Stockton, Cal	do	75,000.00	75,000.00
Tallahassee, Fla	Court-house and post-office	75,000.00	75,000.00
Taunton, Mass	Post-office	75,000.00	75,000.00
Troy, N. Y	Post-office, court-house, etc	500,000.00	500,000.00
Washington, D. C	Post-office	2,655,497.70	700,000.00
Wilmington, Del	Court-house and post-office	250,000.00	250,000.00
Worcester, Mass	Post-office, etc	400,000.00	300,000.00
York, Pa	Post-office	80,000.00	80,000.00
Youngstown, Ohio	do	75,000.00	75,000.00
		32,827,664.69	22,802,317.69

*This appropriation has been charged with purchase of original site and building basement.

One hundred and four buildings.

NOTE.—Where the appropriations are made in excess of the limit of cost the appropriations are shown as the limit.

May 22, 1893.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 144.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 10, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Indian Affairs and ordered to be printed.

Mr. MANDERSON presented the following

STATEMENT WITH REGARD TO MR. DUNCAN'S WORK AMONG THE TSIMPSHEEAN INDIANS OF BRITISH COLUMBIA AND ALASKA.

On the 1st of October, 1857, Mr. William Duncan, of England, arrived at Fort Simpson, British Columbia, to open a mission among the Tsimpsheeans. He found by actual count that they numbered 2,300. They were barbarians of a low type, and their history little less than a chapter of crime and misery.

On the 28th of June, 1858, he had so far acquired a knowledge of the language that he was able to open his first school in the house of a chief, with an attendance of 26 children and 15 adults.

In April, 1860, he made preaching tours to the various villages situated on the rivers which empty into the ocean near Fort Simpson.

Having secured a few followers among the natives, he proposed to them that they remove from the native village, where they were more or less under the influence of their heathen neighbors, and establish a new village that should be under strict regulations. The removal was accomplished on the 27th of May, 1860, the people arriving at their new location, 16 miles south of Fort Simpson, the next day at 2 o'clock. There were 50 men, women, and children that composed this first colony. On the 6th of June 290 additional natives joined them. Everyone desiring to settle in the new village was required to subscribe to the following agreement:

1. To give up sorcery.
2. To cease calling in sorcerers when sick.
3. To cease gambling.
4. To cease giving away their property for display.
5. To cease painting their faces.
6. To cease drinking intoxicating liquors.
7. To observe the Sabbath.
8. To attend religious instruction.
9. To send their children to school.
10. To be cleanly.
11. To be industrious.
12. To be peaceful.
13. To be liberal and honest in trade.
14. To build neat houses.
15. To pay the village tax.

The new village, notwithstanding the above stringent regulations, grew very rapidly until it had a population of 1,000 natives. They had erected for themselves good, comfortable frame houses, had a steam sawmill, a salmon-canning establishment, and a village store, owned

largely by native shareholders. A number of them had learned the carpentry trade, others furniture-making, and still others boat-building and boot and shoe making, and the various industries found in villages.

Their prosperity continued until about 1880, when the news of the remarkable success of the mission had circulated wherever the English language was known. This had attracted a great deal of attention to the mission, so much so that the Church of England, whose missionary society had originally sent Mr. Duncan to the field, thought that the importance of the mission demanded a bishop, and one was selected, ordained, and sent. The coming of the bishop to the station immediately started rivalries. If the bishop was to be at the head of the mission Mr. Duncan, who had given his life to the work and had created the mission, would have to take a second place, which he could not very well afford to do. On the other hand, the bishop could not afford to allow Mr. Duncan to rule and he himself take a second place.

In the meantime the attention of the Canadian Pacific Railway authorities had been attracted to the increasing importance of northern British Columbia and Alaska, and they had sent surveyors for a preliminary survey with regard to running a railroad to the coast at that point.

When the people found that the railroad surveyors were driving stakes over the lands that they and their fathers had occupied for generations they protested. Finding that their protests were of no avail they sent a committee to Ottawa to lay their grievances before the Canadian Parliament. Securing no redress there, the committee continued their journey to London, but were prevented from having a personal interview with the Queen, and returned home very much discouraged. Upon agitating the question of their personal rights they found that they had no right whatever to the land that they had always supposed to be their own, and that there was no future for their children under the regulations provided by the Parliament of British Columbia. This, in connection with the land difficulties and the difficulties of the church combined, made them very much dissatified; and, finally, in the winter of 1886–'87, they sent their leader, Mr. Duncan, to Washington to confer with the President, Secretary of the Interior, and leading officials of our Government, the result of which was that in the spring of 1887 they concluded to leave British Columbia and move in a body to the contiguous territory of Alaska in the United States.

They supposed, of course, that they would be allowed to take down the houses which they owned and transport their windows, doors, lumber, etc., over to their new home, which was about 60 miles north of the old place. They were, however, disappointed in this, as an official of the British Columbia Government forbade their taking anything. And this people, that had slowly come up from barbarism to civilization, were compelled to go out empty handed, leaving behind them all the property which they had accumulated during those nearly thirty years that they had been emerging from barbarism to civilization.

On the 7th of August Mr. Duncan returned from Washington and landed at Port Chester, on Annette Island, the place that had been selected for their new home. It was a great gala day for the people. A United States flag, donated to them by the ladies of Philadelphia in Independence Hall, was flung to the breeze with cheers and firing of guns. Addresses were made by Mr. Duncan and several tourists who were with him on the steamer. A prayer for God's blessing followed, and the public exercises were closed by the people singing with great *vigor the doxology*, "Praise God, from whom all blessings flow."

The timber was cleared off a number of acres for a village site, which was duly surveyed and plotted and allotted to the inhabitants. A steam sawmill and a large store building were erected. Friends in Brooklyn, New York, and other cities sent several thousand dollars for public improvements. Since then a large schoolhouse, church, and salmon cannery have been erected.

In "An act to repeal timber-culture laws, and for other purposes," approved March 3, 1891, Congress set apart Annette Island as a reservation for the use of this colony and such other Alaskan natives as might join them.

Since their settlement in Alaska they have been knocking at the door of the district court at Sitka for naturalization, but up to the present time the court has held that there was no way under the statutes of the United States by which they could be naturalized.

A copy of the letter of Judge Bugbee is herein inclosed.

In the meantime some of their young men who had been educated at Sitka have established a steam sawmill on an island to the north of Annette, and are asking how they can secure a title to the land upon which their property is situated, just as American citizens do. I inclose a copy of their letter.

Hoping that you may have time to examine the statutes and see if there is any provision for their naturalization, and if there is no such provision that you will feel disposed to introduce a bill into Congress for their naturalization, I am,

Very respectfully, yours,

SHELDON JACKSON,
U. S. General Agent of Education for Alaska.

Hon. CHAS. F. MANDERSON,
U. S. Senate.

CHAMBERS OF JUDGE OF U. S. DISTRICT COURT,
Sitka, Alaska, September 29, 1890.

MY DEAR SIR: I have given much consideration to your very interesting letter of the 8th instant, in which you request me to make an official visit during the autumn or winter months, when your people are at home, for the purpose of receiving their declarations of intentions to become citizens of the United States.

I have no doubt whatever that admission to citizenship would be a great boon to them, and that they would make good, useful, and law-abiding citizens. I feel, too, that they have strong claims to share the rights to which, under the naturalization laws, other British subjects are entitled. But the law of the United States relating to naturalization expressly declares that its provisions "shall apply to aliens being white persons" (Rev. Stat. U. S., sec. 2, 169), and this has been construed by such eminent jurists as Jndge Lorenzo Sawyer, *In re* Ah Tup (5 Sawy., 155), and Judge Matthew P. Deady, *In re* Camille, and Indian half-breed (6 Sawy., 541), as limiting the application of the law to persons of the Caucasian race.

I can see no relief for your people except through the action of Congress.

Even if I felt at liberty to receive their declarations of intention in the hope that future legislation might ripen such action to full citizenship, it would neither be just to them nor fair on my part to hold out to them a hope which may never be realized, and the realization of which I am powerless to forward.

I feel that it is a great pity that such good people as yours, anxious to swear allegiance and prove their loyalty to the United States, with undoubted competency to perform all the duties of citizens, should, through no act, omission, or want on their part, be denied the rights, privileges, and immunities that the Government so freely extends to paler but less deserving men; but beyond my heartfelt sympathy and good wishes for you and them, which at all times I gladly express, I am helpless to act in their behalf.

I regret that I shall not be able to visit your people this autumn or coming winter in a judicial capacity, although I believe, with you, that a session of court would be

desirable then and might prove salutary in the interests of peace and good order to the settlements surrounding your own; but there does not seem at present to be such necessity as would justify burdening the Government with the expense. Nevertheless I hope that I may before long be able to visit your interesting community and to pay my respects to you in person.

Very sincerely yours,

JOHN S. BUGBEE,
U. S. District Judge, District of Alaska.

Rev. WILLIAM DUNCAN,
Metlakahtla, Alaska.

[Hamilton, Simpson & Co., manufacturers and dealers in spruce, red and yellow cedar lumber.]

PORT GRAVINA, ALASKA, *February 20, 1894.*

DEAR SIR: We are pleased to let you know what we want, for we know that you are doing good to the natives of Alaska; that you help those teaching us in English, and to obey God.

We, the people of Metlakahtla, starting a business as we were taught and choose to do what God wants, but we refused to follow the deeds of our forefathers, wanting ourselves as free men of the Union.

We have started a saw mill on this Gravina Island, Alaska, and have settled all the machinery by our native hands, and running it correctly.

By the time we finished the mill our town of Metlakahtla was partly burnt down, so we earnestly sawed all the lumber, waiting not till they will pay us. So this seems that heaven let us do this so we gradually increase all the machinery used, and in the past year we spent $10,000 for all, still there are more tools we need. We wanted to use a $12,000 worth of a mill.

Therefore, this we want you to help us to let us borrow from the Government of $1,000 or $2,000, for to get some more tools and machineries for our mill, and to trust us to pay back after awhile, for we don't perfectly know if the bank will trust us and lend us the said amount, and we expect the Government will let it, for we are trying to do what we can and know on this American country.

Now in regard to school, we have seen W. Duncan about it, and he told that the money sent by the Government is so few that he added his own money in paying the teachers at Metlakahtla.

So this we want that the Government may help us about school, that our children here are over 20 in number at our mill. So we want to be helped by the Government for a few money and we will add our own money to pay the teacher, for some of our Metlakahtla students can do as teacher, not to be paid so dearly as white teacher for one year, to use both our money for we know you are anxious to let us learn English and we are eagerly study as whites.

In regard to the portion of land whereon we built a mill, we want you to explain us what power we should have to hold this spot, for many of the bad whites who are citizens, said can easily seize our mill for we start this business as whites do so we want to firm and defend our business. For we left where we born for a freedom. Though it is very hard to us about that, but it is harder to be vexed, so we crept under the Union flag where we heard it's all free, so we have seen that it's coming to be good to us, for the Americans are kinder any others. Awaiting your answer we'll be pleased to hear from you and try and consider our wanting and oblige.

Very sincerely yours,

HAMILTON, SIMPSON & CO.,
Per HALDANE.

Dr. SHELDON JACKSON,
Washington, D. C.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 145.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 12, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Organization, Conduct, and Expenditures of the Executive Departments, and ordered to be printed.

Mr. CHANDLER presented the following:

STATEMENT OF J. R. GARRISON, LATE DEPUTY FIRST COMPTROLLER OF THE TREASURY IN OPPOSITION TO THE PROPOSED LEGISLATION TO IMPROVE THE METHODS OF ACCOUNTING IN THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT BY ABOLISHING THE OFFICES OF SECOND COMPTROLLER AND COMMISSIONER OF THE CUSTOMS AND GIVING THE SIX AUDITORS THE POWER TO FINALLY EXAMINE AND CERTIFY ALL CLAIMS AGAINST THE UNITED STATES, SUBJECT ONLY TO AN APPEAL UNDER LIMITED CONDITIONS TO ONE COMPTROLLER OF THE TREASURY.

Senate bill No. 1831, and House bill No. 6478, "To improve the methods of accounting in the Department of the Treasury, and for other purposes."

Bills identical, both introduced March 29, 1894, and each referred to the "Joint Commission of Congress to inquire into the status of the laws organizing the Executive Departments."]

OBJECTIONS TO THE PROPOSED LEGISLATION—REASONS SHOWING IT TO BE UNWISE, AND THAT IT WILL NOT IMPROVE THE METHODS OF ACCOUNTING IN THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT. BY J. R. GARRISON, LATE DEPUTY FIRST COMPTROLLER OF THE TREASURY.

The bills above referred to provide for abolishing the office of Second Comptroller of the Treasury, for taking away from the First Comptroller his power and authority to make detailed examination and final settlement of accounts and claims in his office. Six Auditors provided for are invested with exclusive power and authority to finally examine and certify all accounts and claims in which the United States are concerned, subject to appeal, under conditions specified, to the First Comptroller, who is to be known as the Comptroller of the Treasury. Accounts are no longer to be certified to the Register of the Treasury, but to a division in the office of the Secretary of the Treasury, to be known as the Division of Bookkeeping and Warrants. The files of accounts are no longer to be kept by the Register (who has been the custodian of the accounts of civil expenditures since the foundation of the Government), but the respective auditors are to keep the files of the accounts subject to their jurisdiction.

The respective jurisdiction of the six Auditors of the Treasury (excepting that of the Auditor for the Post-Office Department) is very materially modified.

In order to clearly comprehend the effect and scope of the proposed legislation the two bills referred to must be considered in connection with Senate bill No. 1738 and House bill No. 5750, which are identical, both introduced March 6, 1894, and provide for abolishing the office of Commissioner of Customs and concentrating in the First Auditor the sole and final authority as to examining and certifying customs accounts and all other accounts subject to the jurisdiction of the Commissioner of Customs, with the right of appeal to the First Comptroller under specified conditions.

Right here it must be observed that this last-named bill, in section 3, provides that the First Auditor shall certify to the *Register of the Treasury* the accounts now subject, under existing law, to the jurisdiction of the Commissioner of Customs, and this bill (H. R. No. 5750) was passed by the House March 8, 1894.

But by the bill introduced March 29, 1894, above referred to (Senate No. 1831, identical with H. R. No. 6478), in section 5, it is provided that the First Auditor shall have sole and final jurisdiction with respect to the same class of accounts—those now subject to the jurisdiction of the Commissioner of Customs—but shall certify said accounts to the *division of bookkeeping and warrants.* So that by the bills introduced March 6 the Auditor is required to certify a certain class of accounts to the *Register of the Treasury*, and by the bills introduced March 29 he is directed to certify the same class of accounts to the *division of bookkeeping and warrants.* This instance illustrates the mistakes, incongruities, and perplexities that must of necessity arise if the attempt to break up the system of accounting, which has prevailed with signal success for more than a century, and to engraft upon what remains a crude and untried system, should be successful and become enacted into law.

REASONS FOR THE PROPOSED CHANGE UNWARRANTED.

The reasons assigned for the proposed legislation to abolish the final revision and certification of accounts and claims by the Comptrollers and the Commissioner of Customs are two:

(1) That the change will expedite the public business and do away with the objectionable delays in the settlement of accounts in the Treasury Department.

(2) That it will be economical and save to the Government the salaries of the officials whose offices are abolished and the salaries of such clerks as may be dispensed with.

(1) How far will the proposed changes expedite the public business? The question has been considered as if the delays so much complained of occur only in the offices of the Comptrollers and the Commissioner of Customs, and it is assumed that if these offices are abolished all the public business will be kept up to date. Facts do not sustain any such line of argument. The delay in the Auditors' offices have been quite as much as those in the offices of the Comptrollers and the Commissioner, in all probability more, except in isolated cases where the Comptrollers and the Commissioner of Customs have necessarily held up accounts and claims pending investigation of frauds or the production of necessary evidence. A full and fair investigation, not confined to a single Auditor or to any special class of accounts, will demonstrate the correctness of this statement.

Again, nearly all accounts pass through some Executive Department for administrative action or approval, and it is just here that most delays

occur. Well-authenticated cases might be cited in which the head of some Department has complained to the First Comptroller of the supposed delay of his office in passing some account or claim when investigation has developed the fact that the very account was lying unacted upon in the Department from which complaint emanated.

The Commission, and particularly their experts, lay great stress upon the value and importance of the so-called administrative action by the Departments on accounts and claims, supposing that such action may take the place of the detailed examination by the Comptroller of the Treasury Department, but the delays caused by such administrative action seem to have altogether escaped their attention.

The proposed change materially modifies the jurisdiction of each of the six auditors (except that of the Auditor for the Post-Office Department); divests the Register of the Treasury of his authority as official bookkeeper of the Department and custodian of its files; provides that accounts shall be certified to a new division, and that each of the auditors shall keep his own files of accounts. To illustrate how radical the change will be, internal-revenue accounts which have gone to the Fifth Auditor under provisions of law since the present internal-revenue system was inaugurated will, under the proposed change, go to the First Auditor, while judiciary accounts and other accounts relating to the Department of Justice, which have always been under the jurisdiction of the First Auditor, will, if the proposed bills are enacted, go to the Fifth Auditor.

It does not require argument to show that to prepare the proper books and blanks necessary to inaugurate the proposed change in the system, to transfer the files and prepare places or rooms for them, to familiarize the officials and clerks with their new duties, and to do all things necessary to change the well-established order of things which has existed for a century, and to adapt it to the new conditions, must take time. The changing of the files will not only be productive of confusion, perplexity, and delay in the dispatch of business, but will necessarily require considerable labor by competent clerks to assort and properly distribute the vast accumulation of accounts and records, and will be attended with heavy expense. While the new order of things is being established the regular routine work of adjusting accounts will fall behind. It is not an extravagant estimate to say that if the present clerical force is left intact it will be some years, at least, before the system is in thorough running order and the work brought and kept up to date. But with the large reduction in the clerical force recommended by the Commission and their experts it is inevitable that the public business will soon fall greatly in arrears, much more so than at present. The claim that the proposed changes will expedite the public business and obviate delays is not well founded.

(2) How far will the proposed changes prove to be measures of economy? There will be a saving of the salaries of the officials who are dispensed with, to wit: the Commissioner of Customs and deputy, Second Comptroller and deputy, and deputy first comptroller. But against this it should be borne in mind that the First Comptroller is to be continued as Comptroller of the Treasury at a salary of $5,500 per annum, in lieu of his present salary of $5,000, with an assistant comptroller at $5,000 per annum, and a chief clerk at $2,500 per annum. The experts recommend that the salaries of the 6 Auditors shall be $4,000 instead of $3,600, and that there be 10 principal clerks in the Comptroller's office at $2,000, in place of 4 chiefs of division at $2,100. The bills referred to do not provide for the changes in the clerical

forces. The experts in their report estimate the number of clerks to be dispensed with, but this is entirely problematic. For the reasons stated, if the clerical force is reduced to the extent recommended by the experts, the public business must fall behind for several years until the new system has been inaugurated and put in satisfactory operation. The cost of the necessary books, blank forms, printing, arranging files, cases, and lockers for the files of the several Auditors, moving and arranging the vast number of accounts now in the several file rooms, and other necessary expenses incident to the change must be taken into consideration. The saving in dollars and cents, if any, will by no means be as great as that estimated by the experts, for they have ignored the fact that the proposed change must be attended with heavy expenses and much extra work, for which they have made no estimate.

PROTECTION AND SAFETY IN A DIVIDED RESPONSIBILITY.

It is claimed by the experts and assumed by the commission that a divided responsibility in the accounting system is no protection to the Government. The best possible answer to this proposition is the record of the accounting system of the Treasury for more than a century. No one can examine the facts without being forced to acknowledge that the Government has been protected against fraud, collusion, and consequent loss in a most remarkable degree. Can it be safely asserted that this is owing solely to the honesty and integrity of the officials and clerks, and that the accounting system instituted by the act of September 2, 1789, which established the Treasury, inaugurated under the supervision and special approval of Alexander Hamilton, has in no way contributed to the result? During the many years of Republican administration after the late war it was continually asserted by the party in opposition that a change was essential in order that the books of the Treasury might be examined, and the frauds, which a long lease of power is sure to beget, might be brought to light. This claim was even made by Gen. Hancock when a candidate for the Presidency. But when the change did come, and the Democratic party came into power, the books were examined, and the most rigorous scrutiny was given to the accounting system, but no frauds were discovered. The system is a sure check and spy upon fraud, and none can go long undiscovered so long as the integrity of the system is preserved. No falsification of the books and records of the Treasury Department has been discovered, no corrupt collusion between the accounting officers has been brought to light, and the losses arising within the Department from fraudulent transactions are few in number and trifling in amount.

These are mainly, if not entirely, cases of skillful forgery on the part of dishonest clerks, of such a character as would not ordinarily be detected in a bank or business house, and which escaped the scrutiny of both accounting officers for the time being. They were, however, soon discovered, and the guilty parties arrested, tried, and punished. These cases were adverted to and urged upon the attention of the House in the debate on the bill (H. R. No. 5750) for abolishing the office of Commissioner of Customs, by those favoring the measure, as argument to show that the office of Comptroller in the Treasury is not a safeguard because these frauds were not discovered by that officer or in his office. And it may be here noted, parenthetically, that some of the cases brought up for the purpose of arraigning the office of Comptroller were those

for which the Comptroller was in no sense responsible—notably the Burnside defalcation for sales of waste paper, an account pertaining to postal revenues settled exclusively by the Sixth Auditor, and never coming before the Comptroller; and the Ewing defalcation, which was really brought to light by a letter of the First Comptroller to the Attorney-General, complaining of Ewing's neglect in rendering his accounts, and stating that the Comptroller would recommend to the Secretary of the Treasury that no further requisitions of the Attorney-General in Ewing's favor be honored, unless his accounts in arrears were promptly and satisfactorily rendered. (*See* Congressional Record, March 9, 1894, vol. 26, No. 71, pp. 3358 to 3370.)

The record of the accounting system of the Treasury for more than a century, when compared with that of the fiscal departments of the States and of public and private corporations throughout the country, is marvelous and speaks volumes in favor of the "divided responsibility and double check," the opinions of the experts to the contrary, notwithstanding. The losses to the Government arising within the Treasury Department, as compared to the vast amounts involved as receipts and expenditures, are indeed insignificant, and the result is astonishing when the comparison is extended to the stupendous and frequent defalcations, reaching millions of dollars, which have occurred and are still occurring in the treasuries of various States, and of city governments, in the offices of State and city treasurers, auditors, and comptrollers, as well as in public and private corporations and individual concerns. These frauds are accomplished by the result of one-man power—single responsibility, under which systematic falsification of books and records has been made possible, and successfully carried out for years without detection. Is it wise to open the Treasury of the United States to such possibilities?

The commission, in their report of March 29, 1894 (H. Rep. No. 637), p. 2, quote from a report made to Congress in 1842, by a "select committee on retrenchment," arguing against the system of divided responsibility, claiming that it does not prevent wrongdoing, but often promotes negligence and fraud, and that "the complex system of expenditure and account is one of the greatest practicable obstructions to economy and responsibility in the Government." It is sufficient answer to this remarkable statement, now invoked to arraign the accounting system inaugurated under Hamilton, that it had no influence on Congress at the time; that body in its wisdom did not see fit to adopt the views of the "select committee" in 1842, and it looks as if valid reasons for breaking down the accounting system are wanting when this back number is resurrected from the dust of the past. The commission say (on the same page of said report): "It is clear that the present mode of settling accounts does not answer the demands of public justice or economy; and it is also clear that the divided responsibility does not protect the Government." The views or arguments adduced by the commission in support of this strong assertion are those of the experts, which will presently be adverted to.

The above statement of the Commission must have been made hastily, relying on the views of the experts, for it is in direct contradiction of the views of some of the ablest men of our country, who have emphatically favored a divided responsibility in the accounting system—the independent action of a comptroller and an auditor. At the first session of Congress (May, 1789), in the debate on the question whether there should be a board or a single head to manage the finances of the United States, Mr. Madison objected to the former, as

follows: "If a board is established, the *independent officers of comptroller and auditor are unknown;* you give the aggregate of these powers to the board, the members of which are equal; therefore you give more power to each individual than is proposed to be intrusted to the Secretary." (Debates in Congress, vol. 1, O. S., pp. 384–408.)

Mr. Baldwin, who subsequently brought in the bill to establish the Treasury Department, said he hoped "to see proper checks provided—a comptroller, auditors, register, and treasurer." He "would not suffer the Secretary to touch a farthing of the public money beyond his salary. *The settling of the accounts should be in the auditors and comptroller, the registering them to be in another officer*, and the cash in the hands of one unconnected with either." (*Id.*, 408.)

After Mr. Hamilton had been succeeded as Secretary of the Treasury by Oliver Wolcott, who was promoted from the office of Comptroller, he (Mr. Hamilton) advised the President as to the proper officer to whom should be assigned the temporary execution of the Comptroller's Office, made vacant by Mr. Wolcott's appointment as Secretary. In this letter Mr. Hamilton treats *in extenso* of the complicated system and divided responsibility of the Treasury Department, emphasizing the importance of the separate, independent action of each officer as a check upon the other, even referring to the Register as exercising an important check, "first upon the Secretary and Comptroller, whose warrants he must register and sign before they can take effect; and secondly, upon the settlements of the Comptroller and Auditor by recording their acts and entering them on the books to the proper accounts." In referring to the Comptroller, Mr. Hamilton says his "office imports *the second trust* in the Department," and he refers to the Auditor as "the coadjutor of the Comptroller in settlements."

Attorney-General Crittenden, in 1852, addressed to the President an elaborate and exhaustive opinion respecting the duties and powers of the accounting officers of the Treasury, growing out of a question of conflicting jurisdiction between the Commissioner of Customs and the Secretary of the Treasury. The learned Attorney-General traces minutely each step in the accounting system established by the organic act of September 2, 1789, and dwells upon the high importance of each process, the separate and independent action of the officers of the Treasury upon whom rest the duty of examining and certifying accounts and claims; that of the Auditor in examining and settling accounts and claims and reporting his balances thereon to the Comptroller (or to the Commissioner of Customs, as the case may be) for his decision thereon; of the Comptroller (or the Commissioner of Customs) in reexamining and certifying the balances to the Register of the Treasury, and of the Register in recording the same, and (where payment is to be made) certifying to the Secretary of the Treasury "a copy of the balance of the account as audited and adjusted (by the Auditor), and certified to the Register by the Comptroller." In the opinion of Mr. Crittenden, each of the separate steps, by the independent, separate action and divided responsibility of the officer named, is essential as a "safeguard against improper expenditures of the public money," and as the necessary legal process upon which the Secretary of the Treasury may issue a warrant for payment "which shall be warranted by law." (15 Ops. Atty. Gen., 630–658.) See also Opinion of Attorney-General Taft, February 7, 1877 (15 Ops. Atty. Gen., 192), as to the effect of settlements by the accounting officers.

In 12 U. S. Court of Claims Reports, page 553, occurs the following statement as to the divided responsibility of the accounting officers

and the necessity therefor: "But for the settlement of accounts against the United States there is established by law a peculiar and well-appointed system, which requires in each case careful examination and consideration and the judgment and decision of high officers, appointed by the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate, called 'accounting officers,' of two distinct classes, acting separately, the Comptrollers reviewing and finally passing upon the action of the Auditors." The same principle as to the propriety, necessity, and safeguard, in the separate, independent action of the two distinct classes of accounting officers (Auditors and Comptrollers) is recognized in McKnight *v.* The United States (13 C. Cls., 292–313), which gives an elaborate and instructive review of the accounting system; and also in numerous decisions of the U. S. Supreme Court, among which reference may be made to—

Smith *v.* The United States (5 Peters, 291).
Watkins *v.* The United States (9 Wallace, 759).
United States *v.* Gaussen (19 Wallace, 198).
United States *v.* Stone (106 U. S., 525).
United States *v.* Johnston (124 U. S., 236).
United States *v.* Waters (133 U. S., 215).

Having shown what weight of authority may be cited (and my statement is by no means all that might be referred to) in favor of the system of divided responsibility and its importance as a safeguard and protection to the Government, we come now to consider the views of the experts, adopted by the commission, in support of the claim that a divided responsibility in the accounting system "does not protect the Government."

It is claimed that 90 per cent of the expenditures of the Government are now paid through disbursing officers, "who are under bond and take especial care to pay out money only for purposes clearly authorized by law, who, indeed, are authorized to obtain the decisions, of the Comptroller as to the construction of statutes before making payments," and that as such disbursing officers "primarily satisfy themselves of the correctness of their accounts," and that "as the administrative officers also examine and approve these accounts coming under their control before they go to the Auditor," the final revision or detailed examination by the Comptroller may be safely dispensed with, and the whole matter left to the sole discretion and conclusive action of the Auditor.

As a legal proposition it may be said that section 2 of the act of March 3, 1817, now section 236 of the United States Revised Statutes, which requires that "all claims and demands whatever, by the United States or against them, and all accounts whatever in which the United States are concerned, either as debtors or as creditors, shall be settled and adjusted in the Department of the Treasury," never contemplated that the primary examination by a disbursing officer of his own accounts, or the administrative action of any Executive Department in approving them, could take the place of one of the examinations and audits required to be performed in the Treasury Department. And as a business proposition it appears unreasonable and fallacious to claim that such examination and administrative action can be safely taken as a substitute for the critical and detailed examination such accounts now receive in the Comptroller's office. Furthermore, the commission and their experts seem to have looked at the question with the view of accounting for expenditures alone, not considering the importance of a proper and rigorous examination of the accounts of the officers who receive and

collect the revenues of the Government amounting to $500,000,000 annually.

Doubtless a bonded disbursing officer will, if honest, seek to render correct accounts and avoid errors for which he and his sureties must be held accountable. This may be said of any officer who renders accounts to the Government. If all disbursing officers were beyond the reach of temptation and strictly honest there might be some force in what is said regarding their primary examination to see that their own accounts are correct. But it must be remembered that some of the heaviest losses to the Government have been through the defalcations of some of its disbursing officers. A dishonest disbursing officer may succeed in corrupting a dishonest auditor, in whom is concentrated the sole and exclusive authority as to settlement of accounts, as is given in the proposed modification and reform of the accounting system. But under the existing system, wherein every account settled by an auditor must receive a detailed examination and revision by a comptroller, such corruption or collusion is impossible, unless both officers can be corrupted. One operates as a check upon the other. Right here it may be observed that the provision for an appeal to the Comptroller in the proposed legislation will not correct any such abuse or fraud as the one above suggested. Dissatisfied claimants may appeal to the Comptroller—and doubtless the Comptroller will have his hands full of such appealed cases—where the Auditor is vigilant and active in seeking to protect the interests of the Government. But what protection is there to the Government against the action of a dishonest auditor, who for bribe, or favor, prejudice, bias, or any improper motive rules against the interest of the Government, or suffers extravagant and dishonest expenditures to pass? Neither the Secretary nor the Comptroller can be advised of any such action, unless it be accidentally discovered, and therefore there can be no reason or motive why either of them shall order an appeal to the Comptroller in such cases. Neither will the routine duty required of the Auditors in the bills before named, of reporting to the Comptroller their decisions upon the construction of statutes, serve to prevent, or check, or disclose collusive or dishonest practices, or the corrupt and dishonest allowance of accounts or claims by them. The proposed legislation breaks down the all-important safeguard that the divided responsibility imposes—one office acting as a check upon the other. In this connection it is proper to advert to this remarkable assertion, to be found in the report of the experts (p. 34, H. R. Report No. 637):

> The present system of accounting is practically but one check, as the audit of the Comptroller is final and independent of any examinations or audits previously made, and the Government is protected by the accounting branch only so far as the audit of the Comptroller is efficient.

This is stated as an axiomatic truth, no argument or reason whatever being assigned in its support. Can it be supposed that because the Comptroller's action is final and conclusive that for this reason the Auditor is no check upon him? Such a view is without foundation in fact. A comptroller who might be inclined to reverse the Auditor's action, and make an illegal allowance or certify a false balance, would hesitate to do so, because his illegal action would, in the ordinary course of business, soon become known to the Auditor, and thus brought to light. An honest auditor would not hesitate to report to the Secretary, to the President, or to Congress, if necessary, the dishonest and illegal action of a comptroller. The same principle applies to the clerks in the Comptroller's office. They might be tempted to

corrupt or dishonest action in the settlement of an account or claim, but the knowledge that their wrongdoing would shortly come to the knowledge of the clerk in the Auditor's office, who handles the same line of work or class of accounts, would prevent them. The strong probability of speedy detection operates as one of the most potent and effective preventives of wrongdoing. The divided responsibility affords this salutary check. But remove it, and concentrate in one officer, as the proposed legislation concentrates in the Auditor, the sole authority and undivided responsibility in the settlement of accounts and claims, and the temptation to corrupt action and dishonest practice is enhanced as the probability of detection is made remote.

The experts give much weight to the administrative action respecting accounts in the Departments or offices in which they are approved. Such action is in no sense an audit, but merely perfunctory examination of an account for the purpose of ascertaining whether the officer whose account is to be approved has obeyed instructions or kept within prescribed limits. It is not a critical examination of each voucher to test its correctness and pass upon the legality of the expenditure involved. Therefore it can not take the place of the detailed examination made by the Comptrollers. The proposed legislation in no way provides that this so-called administrative action or examination shall be more critical or exact than it has been in the past. It is well known to all familiar with these matters that thousands of vouchers and accounts annually pass through the accounting offices of the Treasury bearing the approval of the head of some Department, after the so-called administrative action therein, in which are found gross errors in computation, and many of the charges so approved by the head of the Department are held to be illegal by the Comptroller. The experts in referring to the proposed change which takes away from the Comptroller the detailed examination of accounts in his office and vests the final authority to pass upon and certify the same in the Auditor, say:

> This will do much toward removing the irritation and friction that is known to exist between the officers connected with the administrative Departments of the Government and the Government's accounting officers.

The experts in making this somewhat naive statement were evidently unmindful of the protracted struggle that existed on the part of the Comptrollers from the foundation of the Government down to 1868 against the undue pressure exercised by heads of Departments in seeking to enforce the allowance of accounts and claims which the Comptrollers held to be extravagant or unwarranted by law. Various opinions by distinguished Attorney-Generals of the United States were rendered, some supporting the view that the approval of the head of an Executive Department should control, others in favor of the conclusive authority of the Comptrollers. But Congress settled the vexed question authoritatively and decisively in favor of the Comptrollers by the act of March 30, 1868 (15 Stat., 54), now section 191 of the Revised Statutes of the United States, which provides that—

> The balances which may from time to time be stated by the Auditor and certified to the heads of Departments by the Commissioner of Customs or the Comptrollers of the Treasury upon the settlement of public accounts shall not be subject to be changed or modified by the heads of Departments, but shall be conclusive upon the executive branch of the Government and be subject to revision only by Congress or the proper courts.

Here is a legislative sanction and approval of the divided responsibility; the separate and independent action of the Auditor and the Comptroller in the settlement of public accounts, and a recognition of

the high and important duties and powers of the office of Comptroller, which is stronger than all else that has been or can be adduced in favor of the present accounting system, and ought to be sufficient reason and authority for its retention.

OBJECTIONABLE FEATURES IN THE PRESENT SYSTEM OF ACCOUNTING.

An objectionable feature in the present system of accounting is that statutes sometimes receive contradictory constructions by the two Comptrollers and the Commissioner of Customs, each being independent of the others, and their rulings in other matters pertaining to the settlement of accounts are occasionally at variance. This is an objection which can not be overlooked, but it has never occasioned any serious difficulty or loss to the Government. There has been harmony in the construction of the great and important principles, and the difference has related mainly to minor matters in accounting.

Had the original system as inaugurated under Hamilton been preserved intact this difficulty could not have arisen. Instead of creating separate and independent comptrollers, as the business of the Government increased the one comptroller might have been granted assistant comptrollers to perform the duties now assigned to the two Comptrollers and the Commissioner of Customs, and thus many of the difficulties and perplexities in the accounting system would have been avoided. The proposed legislation is not a return to the original system, but a wider departure from it. It vests in the five Auditors the final authority to decide upon matters of account now vested in the Comptrollers and the Commissioner of Customs. (The Sixth Auditor, since the creation of that office in 1836, has, so to speak, been his own comptroller.)

Under the proposed reform there will be six auditors, each of whom may make decisions, and these decisions will not always be harmonious. If specially appealed to the Comptroller the contradictory decisions will be harmonized; but, as already shown, the process provided will not bring all of such cases before the Comptroller. The remedy proposed for the objectionable feature of contradictory decisions will aggravate rather than cure the evil.

The delay in the transaction of the public business is urged as an objectionable feature in the present accounting system. But the delays that exist are not the fault of the system, but arise from lack of administrative force and proper dispatch of business in Executive Departments and in the accounting offices. As already shown, these delays can not be attributed solely to the Comptrollers and the Commissioner of Customs. The facts will not warrant any such conclusion.

For example: Postal accounts settled by the Sixth Auditor, which do not go to the Comptroller for revision or detailed examination, have been as much in arrears as the accounts in any bureau in the Treasury Department.

Furthermore, for reasons already stated, the proposed legislation, in overturning a well-established system and radically changing the existing order of things and jurisdiction of offices, will, in all probability, bring about greater delays and cause the public business to fall still further behind.

CRITICISM OF SPECIAL SECTIONS OF SENATE BILL NO. 1831 AND HOUSE BILL NO. 6478.

Section 1.—The reasons assigned for the change in the nomenclature of the several Auditors, designating them as Auditor for the Treasury Department, Auditor for the War Department, etc., are fanciful rather

than real. The title designates the jurisdiction of the particular Auditor only superficially. True, the Auditor for the Treasury Department will have jurisdiction of all accounts and business coming under the Treasury Department, but it will still be a question to be determined (and sometimes not without difficulty) to say just what accounts and business do come under the Treasury Department, and in like manner with respects to each of the other Executive Departments. For this fanciful change in title the existing jurisdiction of the Auditors is to be radically overturned, which will be inevitably attended with great confusion, and render it extremely difficult after the lapse of years to trace the payments of accounts and claims. This is no slight evil, as there is no statute of limitations against the Government, and it is a matter of frequent occurrence in the Departments to have old claims, long since paid, brought before the accounting officers and other officials, and their payment urged.

The present division of jurisdiction between the several Auditors is broader and more philosophic than that given in the proposed change. Under the existing system all military and naval accounts go to the three Auditors (the Second, Third, and Fourth), and all civil accounts go to the First, Fifth, and Sixth Auditors, and to the Commissioner of the General Land Office (as Auditor of public land accounts). The division between the several auditors is very simple; military accounts are assigned to the Second and Third Auditor, the jurisdiction of each being clearly defined; naval account to the Fourth Auditor; post-office and postal-revenue accounts to the Sixth Auditor; public land accounts to the Commissioner of the General Land Office; the Fifth Auditor has accounts accruing in the Department of State, internal-revenue accounts, and a few others specially assigned to him by statute; and the First Auditor, as the original auditor, has jurisdiction of all civil accounts not assigned by law to another auditor. No difficulty can arise as to jurisdiction under the foregoing plain and simple provisions. This well-defined jurisdiction it is proposed to break down; to divide up the files of accounts between the Auditors for the several Departments, and to combine in one auditor jurisdiction both of military and civil accounts, in another jurisdiction of naval and civil accounts, and to radically change the jurisdiction of each (except that of the Auditor for the Post-Office Department) whose jurisdiction is not invaded.

Another very grave objection to an Auditor for an Executive Department is that he is liable to be unduly influenced by the will of the head of that Department with whom he is brought in immediate contact. A cabinet officer is a powerful factor in the administration of the General Government, and it is not overstating the case to say that an Auditor of a particular Executive Department will become a subordinate of the head of that Department, and in a great measure subservient to his will.

Section 2.—The provision in the latter part of this section as to the important duty of bringing suit against delinquent officers and their sureties is very vague and unsatisfactory. It is that "The Auditors, under the direction of the Comptroller of the Treasury, shall superintend the recovery of all debts finally certified by them, respectively, to be due to the United States." Bearing in mind that the Comptroller of the Treasury, as provided for in this bill, has appellate jurisdiction only of accounts, whose duty will it be, if the bill should become a law, to certify transcripts of accounts to the Solicitor of the Treasury for suit? The specific provisions of sections 3624, 3625, and 3638 of the Revised Statutes, imposing this duty on the Comptroller and the Com-

missioner of Customs, seems to have been overlooked in drafting this bill, and the general language employed leaves the matter in doubt.

The above-named sections are not specifically repealed, and as the First Comptroller is continued under the title of Comptroller of the Treasury, would the duty of certifying transcripts of accounts to the Solicitor still remain as one of his duties? The perplexity is augmented by the fact that the bill for abolishing the office of Commissioner of Customs, which passed the House of Representatives March 8, 1894 (House bill No. 5750, and Senate bill No. 1738), in section 2 provides for amending section 3625 by inserting therein the words "First Auditor of the Treasury," instead of the words "Commissioner of Customs."

Section 3.—The provision in this section that "The return of fees mentioned in section 1725 of the Revised Statutes shall be made as prescribed by the Comptroller of the Treasury," conflicts directly with the authority conferred by law upon the President, and takes from the President and vests in the Comptroller a duty specifically assigned by the statute to the President.

The fees referred to in section 1725, Revised Statutes, are consular cees, and the form of rendering these fees is invariably contained in the oonsular regulations prescribed by the President through the Secretary cf State, as the law provides. Section 1725 must be construed in fonnection with sections 1745 and 1752, Revised Statutes. Section 1745 authorizes the President to prescribe "the rates of tariff of fees to be charged for official services" by consular officers of the United States, and section 1752 authorizes the President to prescribe the regulations and issue the orders governing all diplomatic and consular officers of the United States, in relation to their duties, "The transaction of their business, the rendering of *their accounts and returns*," etc. These regulations are always prepared by the Secretary of State and officially prescribed by the President, and in them are always included the tariff of fees which the President is specifically authorized to prescribe (Section 1745), and the form of rendering the "return" thereof (Section 1725). The authority to prescribe the forms of accounting and returns for diplomatic and consular officers of the United States is vested by law in the President who acts through the Secretary of State.

Section 5.—The objections to changing the jurisdiction of the Auditors, as now fixed by law, have already been fully stated. The proposed change of certifying balances to the division of bookkeeping and warrants instead of to the Register is ill advised. The records of all civil accounts and the files thereof have been with the Register since the Treasury Department was established. The Register, in the opinion of Hamilton, Crittenden, and other able statesmen, who were thoroughly familiar with the accounting system, is one of the checks upon which the Secretary must rely in granting warrants upon settlements. If any improvement or reform is to be made all the files and all the records should be kept in the Register's office, as is provided in the organic act creating the Treasury Department. The proposed change will produce great confusion and can be productive of no good.

Section 6.—In this section, beginning at line 26, the following clause occurs: "Any person accepting payment under a settlement by an Auditor shall be precluded from obtaining a revision of such settlement." This is very obscure as to the real meaning, and the rest of the section does not throw light upon it. Does it mean that if any officer's or claimant's accounts are settled in the ordinary course of business, and a Treasury draft sent to him, which he accepts, negotiates, and receives the money thereon, that he has "accepted payment" in the sense of the

proposed statute, and is therefore precluded from obtaining a revision of the settlement, even for good and satisfactory cause shown? The intent of the statute should be made plain. The objections to the provision in this section authorizing the Auditors to keep their own files of accounts have already been fully stated.

Section 8.—The advantages of certifying accounts to the Register instead of to a division in the office of the Secretary of the Treasury have already been adverted to. It is inconsistent with the general theory of the duties of the Secretary, as fixed by law, to require his office to perform duties which appertain to the Register so long as the office of Register remains.

Sections 9 and 10.—The duties required of the Auditors in these sections as to passing upon requisitions for advance of public money to disbursing officers are substantially those which are now performed by the Comptrollers, and do not provide any better protection for the Government. And the provisions as to the rendition of accounts do not materially differ from the existing law touching this matter (section 3622, Revised Statutes), as modified by subsequent acts, which authorize quartely rendition of accounts, but give the Secretary of the Treasury authority to require their rendition more frequently.

This claim, set up as to the great improvement in the system and better protection to the Government that will inure from these two sections (9 and 10) if enacted, is not well founded.

Section 12.—The provision in this section that claims presented to an Auditor which have not had administrative examination shall be "examined by two of his subordinates independently of each other" is, to say the least, a very inadequate and unsatisfactory substitute for the separate, independent, detailed examination of such claims in the Comptrollers, offices, for which this provision is intended as a substitute.

It is respectfully submitted that a candid consideration of the foregoing objections, in connection with the manifest advantages of the present system of accounting, will demonstrate that the proposed changes are unsafe and unwise and ought not to be adopted.

It appears strange that the experts in their examination of the Treasury Department have passed by many features which to those thoroughly familiar with its workings are regarded as useless and unnecessary, and have aimed their first and only blow at the distinctive and most important feature in the accounting system, the office of comptroller, regarded by Hamilton as the "second trust in the Department," often spoken of as "the key of the Treasury," and which none of the great Secretaries from the days of Hamilton to the present time have considered as unnecessary or unessential.

In the report of Levi Woodbury, Secretary of the Treasury, made to the Senate in 1834, from which the commission quote, there is no suggestion that the office of Comptroller might be safely dispensed with, or that the divided responsibility of the Auditor and the Comptroller is not a wise and salutary feature in the accounting system. The report recommended simplification of methods, and the present commission say, after quoting largely from Secretary Woodbury's report: "It is evident that some simplification of the present methods is necessary." It is not shown in what way the methods proposed will simplify existing methods; on the contrary, it is not overstating the case to say that the radical changes introduced will produce greater confusion. The honorable members of the commission, engrossed with their own duties as legislators and not familiar with the details of the accounting system and offices, have necessarily relied upon their experts. The experts,

employed as salaried agents to discover defects in the existing system of accounting and to correct them, could hardly be expected to approve the system as satisfactory. Naturally they arrayed themselves against existing methods and greatly magnified the defects and evils which appeared to exist. A perusal of their report clearly shows it to be an arraignment of the present accounting system, and not a judicial and impartial consideration of its merits and defects. In their efforts to improve it they have recommended the striking down of its most important feature and the destruction of one of the essential safeguards of the public Treasury.

No. 1320 F Street, NW.,
Washington, D. C., April 10, 1894.

Sir: Having been for thirty years employed in various positions in the office of First Comptroller of the Treasury, and filled the office of Deputy First Comptroller for eight years, and left the Department with an honorable record, I naturally feel much interest in the proposed legislation, which practically abolishes the office of Comptroller in the accounting system of the Department (Senate bill No. 1738 and House bill No. 5750, introduced March 6, 1894, also Senale bill No. 1831 and House bill No. 6478, introduced March 29, 1894).

I have therefore prepared the inclosed argument against the proposed changes, but without any personal or pecuniary interest whatever in the matter.

I trust you may have the time and inclination to read it.

Very respectfully, yours,

J. R. Garrison.

Hon. Wm. E. Chandler,
U. S. Senate.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. 145. Part 2.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 12, 1894.—Laid on the table, and ordered to be printed.

Mr. CHANDLER presented the following

SUPPLEMENTAL STATEMENT OF J. R. GARRISON, LATE DEPUTY FIRST COMPTROLLER OF THE TREASURY, AND, IN ADDITION AN ANALYSIS OF SECTION 19 OF HOUSE BILL NO. 6478.

[In connection with Senate Mis. Doc. No. 145, Fifty-third Congress, second session.]

SUPPLEMENTAL STATEMENT IN RELATION TO SENATE BILL NO. 1831, IDENTICAL WITH HOUSE BILL NO. 6478, INTRODUCED MARCH 29, 1894.

Prepared by J. R. GARRISON, *late Deputy First Comptroller of the Treasury.*

TRANSFER OF FILES AND RECORDS IN THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT WHICH THE PROPOSED CHANGE WILL NECESSITATE.

Section 6 of the bill, lines 35–37, provides that—

> The Auditors shall, under the direction of the Comptroller of the Treasury, preserve, with their vouchers and certificates, all accounts which have been finally adjusted.

In order to carry out the proposed change it will be necessary, as stated by the experts, "that the Register's jurisdiction of the files shall be transferred to the Auditors to whom the accounts relate," to "transfer to the respective Auditors jurisdiction of the files now under the Register." (Report No. 637, H. R., Fifty-third Congress, second session, pp. 21 and 29.)

To fully comprehend the magnitude of the work that such transfer of the files will require, some particularity of statement is necessary.

The Register of the Treasury is now the official bookkeeper of all civil accounts and the custodian of the files and records of such accounts. Down to 1817 he was the bookkeeper of all accounts settled by the accounting officers and the custodian of all the files. By section 5 of the act of March 3, 1817 (3 Stat., 366), the Second, Third, and Fourth Auditors (whose offices were created by said act) were authorized to record and register the accounts made subject to their jurisdiction, respectively, and to keep the files and records thereof.

This departure from the Hamiltonian system of accounting is the prime cause of the confusion and perplexity upon which so much stress is laid by the experts and the honorable commission.

Had the Register's jurisdiction been preserved intact, in his office would have been the registers and records of all accounts and the files thereof. So that there would have been one central office in which the recorded balances of all accounts might be found, and the tracing of the payment of any account or claim, or the indebtedness of an officer on any and all accounts would have been easy and simple.

The necessity of having the Register of the Treasury keep the balances of all accounts and the files thereof has been adverted to in annual reports by some of the First Comptrollers. The proposed change takes from the Register his duties as official bookkeeper and custodian of the files of civil accounts, transfers the bookkeeping to a division in the office of the Secretary of the Treasury, and divides the files of accounts between the several Auditors. Should the proposed legislation become a law the result will be that for information as to all receipts, and respecting civil expenditures (other than receipts and expenditures of the postal service), the Register's records and files must be resorted to from the establishment of the Department down to the time the proposed legislation is to go into effect, but after that time it will be necessary to have recourse to the bookkeeping division of the Secretary's office and the files kept by each of the six Auditors. With respect to military and naval expenditures the search for information will be more complex still.

From the organization of the Department down to 1817 we would look to the Register's records and files; after 1817 to the records and files of the Second, Third, and Fourth Auditors; but after the proposed legislation goes into effect (if enacted into a law) we must turn to the bookkeeping division of the Secretary's office and the files kept by each of the six Auditors. The records and files of postal receipts and expenditures have been kept in the Sixth Auditor's office since its establishment in 1836. In addition to the foregoing we must also take into consideration that the jurisdiction of each of the six Auditors (excepting the Auditor for the Post-Office Department) will be very materially changed, causing changes in the serial numbers of many classes of accounts, which will pass from the jurisdiction of one Auditor to that of another—e. g., internal-revenue accounts, which have been under the Fifth Auditor since the internal-revenue system was inaugurated, will go to the First Auditor; judiciary accounts and accounts relating to the Department of Agriculture, which have always been under the First Auditor, will go to the Fifth Auditor; civil expenditures of the War and Navy Departments, which have heretofore been under the First Auditor, will be transferred to the Second and Fourth Auditors; all expenditures of the Interior Department, heretofore audited by the First Auditor, will pass to the Third Auditor, who will also take jurisdiction of the public land accounts now audited by the Commissioner of the General Land Office, and so on.

To state the foregoing facts is to demonstrate that the changes proposed, if carried out, will multiply confusion and perplexity instead of simplifying the existing methods, so that, after the lapse of a number of years, when the officials and clerks now on the scene of action shall have passed away, it will be a matter of the greatest difficulty to trace payments and hunt up the information that is so frequently required respecting accounts and claims. There being no statute of limitation, the liability of paying old claims a second time will be increased, because of the difficulty of tracing out former payments.

The necessary transfers to be made in the files, to place them under

the changed jurisdiction of the several Auditors, as above partially indicated, will require much time and patient labor by skilled clerks.

In the Register's office there are now three large files rooms, occupying much space, two located in the basement of the Treasury Department and one in the attic story, in which story is also located the files rooms of the Third and Fourth Auditors. The files of the Second Auditor are in the Winder Building, corner of Seventeenth and F streets, NW.

There is little more available space for files in the Treasury building, which has been burdened with the vast accumulation for a number of years. During President Cleveland's first administration Secretary Fairchild forcibly brought the matter to the attention of Congress, and urged that a hall of records for the uncurrent files and records of the Treasury Department and other Executive Departments be provided. In the near future it will become absolutely necessary to provide a building for the uncurrent files and records of the Treasury Department.

The honorable commission and the experts seemed to have overlooked this necessity altogether, and probably they did not fully investigate and consider the actual condition of things, and contemplate what a heavy undertaking it will be, attended with great expense and much labor, besides the inevitable confusion and perplexity already adverted to, to transfer the files and records of the Register's office, the accumulation of more than a century, to the jurisdiction of the several Auditors. If the simplifying of methods is sought for, it would seem the proper course to restore all the files to the custody of the Register and to make him the official bookkeeper of all classes of accounts.

The Register is an independent officer of the Department, appointed by the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate, and the propriety of certifying accounts to him to be registered and recorded, rather than to a chief of division appointed by the Secretary, is manifest. Hamilton spoke of the Register as exercising an important check upon the Secretary and the Comptroller with respect to warrants, and upon the Auditor and Comptroller in recording and registering the accounts passed by them. (Works of Hamilton, vol. 5, p. 77.) The Register also exercises an important check in keeping the files of accounts, and should, therefore, be the custodian instead of the Auditors. When an account is withdrawn from the Register's files a receipt therefor is taken, so that the party withdrawing it is known and could always be detected should he destroy or lose an account so withdrawn or any part thereof. But where an Auditor is given the sole power of passing upon an account or claim, as is proposed in the bills referred to, and is also made the custodian of the files of the accounts passed by him, the check against the allowance of an illegal or fraudulent account or claim is not only removed, but, the custody of such account being under the Auditor and not under a separate officer, it is made much easier to make away with an account or claim which furnishes evidence of guilty action by a clerk or an official of the Auditor's office.

ADMINISTRATIVE ACTION OR APPROVAL OF AN ACCOUNT OR CLAIM NOT AN AUDIT.

So much weight is given by the honorable commission and the experts of the so-called administrative action or approval by the Executive Departments and other offices, that more particularity seems to be required to show that this view is erroneous.

The commission quote extensively from the report of Hon. Levi Woodbury, Secretary of the Treasury, made in 1834, as in support of their views respecting the accounting system of the Department; but they have overlooked or intentionally omitted this very significant statement taken from said report:

> It is manifest that no effectual check can ever exist in any case where the same officer authorizes the expenditure and audits or controls the audit of accounts. (Senate Documents No. 16, p. 5, second session Twenty-third Congress.)

Of what value is the administrative action or approval by the head of the Department, who authorized the expenditure, in the light of Mr. Woodbury's opinion?

To illustrate how perfunctory is the approval of the heads of Departments it may be stated as a fact that some of the Secretaries of War, and perhaps the heads of other Departments, when it was decided that the affixing of their signatures by a stamp to the accounts or vouchers to be approved would not be accepted, caused schedules of the vouchers to be made to which their signature could be appended. And yet the experts, evidently without correct information as to the facts, say—

> The safeguards or checks upon the disbursing officers rest almost entirely with the heads of the Executive Departments under which the disbursements are made. * * * The double-detailed examinations in the Treasury Department are unnecessary, as the administrative officers keep as close a supervision over and make as careful examination of their expenditures as was originally done by the Auditor at the foundation of the Government.

This statement is not borne out by the facts, and even if it were strictly correct the examination by the administrative officers who authorize the expenditures is, in the words of Mr. Woodbury, "no effectual check."

It is respectfully suggested that the so-called administrative action in a number of bureaus connected with the Treasury and other Departments might be more safely dispensed with and a greater saving and prompter dispatch of the public business effected thereby than to strike down the office of Comptroller in the accounting system of the Treasury. This administrative action is of no value to the accounting officers and is productive of much of the delay in the settlement of accounts, so justly complained of. A half dozen or more bureaus, offices, or divisions under the Treasury Department might be named in which are so-called accounting offices or divisions devoted to the administrative action of accounts before they come before the Auditors and the First Comptroller. The same condition of things exists in most of the other Executive Departments, and with respect to accounts under the jurisdiction of the Second Comptroller as well as the First Comptroller.

PRACTICAL ILLUSTRATION OF THE IMPORTANCE OF A DOUBLE AUDIT OR DIVIDED RESPONSIBILITY IN THE SETTLEMENT OF PUBLIC ACCOUNTS.

In the report accompanying the bills introduced on March 29 no attention is paid to the great importance of a rigorous and thorough audit of revenue accounts, the argument being devoted solely to expenditures, it being claimed that the preliminary examination by disbursing officers of their own accounts, and the administrative action in the executive departments, afford a sufficient check to warrant dispensing with the detailed examination by the Comptroller. But it is just in revenue accounts when the chance for collusion and fraud is the best. Under the proposed change such accounts will be

examined only in the Auditor's office. If an officer who receives and collects revenues is dishonest, and he can find a dishonest clerk in the Auditor's office who examines his accounts, a collusion can be affected between them, with no check upon it in the Department. The officer may arrange to render his returns short, say, by systematic errors in addition, adroitly scattered over the many pages of the returns; the dishonest clerk for a corrupt motive may agree to pass the shortages unnoticed. The Auditor can not examine into all these details; no one but the clerk who handles the accounts does. And so a false account might be audited from year to year without detection.

Much is said in the report of the experts to show that it is unnecessary for the Comptroller's office to review or revise figures, or mathematical computations, but the foregoing illustrations will show that it is just here where lurking frauds are most likely to occur.

In the report on the bill introduced March 6, and passed by the House March 8, to abolish the office of Commissioner of Customs (Senate bill No. 1738, House bill No. 5750), it is suggested that as 90 per cent of the customs revenues are collected at ports where there are naval officers, the preliminary examination by the naval officers may be taken as sufficient to dispense with the examination in the office of Commissioner of Customs. Great importance is attached to the fact that section 5 of the proposed bill provides that it shall be the duty of collectors of customs, under direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, to furnish with their accounts the original papers upon which the abstracts of the duties collected are made up by the naval officers. This was one of the inducements set out for passing this bill, dispensing with the office of Commissioner of Customs, it being alleged that the original papers alluded to will greatly strengthen the audit of the Auditor. It was strangely overlooked by the honorable commission and the experts that existing law, sections 248 and 251, Revised Statutes, gives to the Secretary of the Treasury the most ample and complete power to require by regulation that such original papers shall be forwarded with the accounts of collectors.

The preliminary work of naval officers can not safely take the place of the detailed examination in the Comptroller's Office, or that of the Commissioner of Customs. It was never intended for that purpose. For the duties of naval officers see sections 2626, 2869, and 2889, U. S. Revised Statutes; sections 1040 and 1042 of the Customs Regulations of 1892; see also customs administrative act of June 10, 1890, 26 U. S. Statutes at Large, pp. 131–137, which makes the decision of collectors of customs as to the *rate and amount* chargeable upon imported merchandise final and conclusive against parties in interest, subject to appeal, under the conditions prescribed, to the Board of U. S. General Appraisers and thence to the U. S. circuit courts.

After the star-route frauds had been perpetrated Hon. Jacob H. Ela, of New Hampshire, for many years a member of Congress from that State, and afterward Fifth Auditor of the Treasury for a number of years, was selected, for his special fitness and tried integrity, to be Sixth Auditor of the Treasury, to which position he was transferred and appointed from that of Fifth Auditor. In a letter addressed by him to Hon. William Lawrence, then First Comptroller of the Treasury, under date of May 8, 1884, he says:

In answer to your inquiry as to "whether it is advisable to apply the Treasury system of adjusting accounts to the account of the Post-Office Department," I have the honor to inform you that *I favor the policy of having all accounts reviewed by a Comptroller after passing an Auditor*, whenever they shall be reduced to the lowest

practicable number. At the present time four-fifths of the accounts of postmasters are such that they could be dispensed with, by causing the money-order offices to disburse such payments as become necessary, and furnish such stamps as may be required at the smaller offices.

From Mr. Ela's long experience in public life, and the fact that he had served as an Auditor, subject to review by the Comptroller, and afterward as Sixth Auditor, who exercises the functions both of Auditor and Comptroller, and the great interest in the proper settlement of public accounts which existed at the time because of the star-route frauds, great weight should be given to his opinion in favor of the final review of all accounts by the Comptroller.

Public men of ability have entertained the opinion that the star-route frauds could not have been successfully perpetrated had these accounts been subject to a detailed examination in the Comptroller's Office, since the question as to the legality of said accounts would have been developed thereby and presented for final decision by the Comptroller.

DUTIES OF THE COMPTROLLER UNDER THE PROPOSED LAW.

Under the proposed legislation it would seem that there is no duty appertaining to the office of Comptroller of the Treasury, as therein provided for, which may not at any time be devolved upon his assistant or chief clerk, although the Comptroller is present.

The Assistant Comptroller of the Treasury shall perform such duties as may be prescribed by the Comptroller of the Treasury, and shall have power, under the direction of the Comptroller of the Treasury, to *countersign all warrants* and sign all other papers (Sec. 2, lines 19 to 23.)

Thus the Assistant Comptroller may at any time countersign accountable warrants, under direction of the Comptroller, a class of warrants which, under the law, must be signed by the Secretary himself when present and in discharge of his official duties, and which can only be signed by an Assistant Secretary as Acting Secretary when the Secretary is absent, and in like manner must be countersigned by the First Comptroller when present, and by the Acting Comptroller in his absence.

The chief clerk shall perform such duties as may be assigned to him by the Comptroller, and shall have the power, in the name of the Comptroller of the Treasury, to countersign all warrants except accountable warrants. (Sec. 2, lines 24 to 27.)

This broad authority as to the assignment of duties to the Assistant Comptroller and the chief clerk makes it possible for the office of Comptroller of the Treasury to become a sinecure.

TREASURY SYSTEM UNDER THE CONFEDERATION.

An interesting review of the Treasury system under the Confederation may be found in volume 6 of the Decisions of Comptroller Lawrence, pp. 263 to 266.

Although the plan of accounting under the Confederation was several times changed, yet as early as September 26, 1778, the following ordinance was passed (Journals of Congress, vol. 3, p. 79, *et seq.;* Laws U. S., ed. 1815, vol. 1, p. 633):

Resolved, That a house be provided at the city or place where Congress shall sit, wherein shall be held the several offices of the Treasury;

That there be the following offices, to wit, the Comptroller's Auditor's, Treasurer's, and two chambers of accounts;

That each chamber of accounts consists of three commissioners and two clerks, to be appointed by Congress;

That in the Auditor's office there be an Auditor annually appointed by Congress, and two clerks appointed by the Auditor;

That in the Comptroller's office there be a Comptroller annually appointed by Congress, and two clerks appointed by the Comptroller;

That the Auditor, Treasurer, and Comptroller shall not be appointed unless by the votes of nine States, and they be accountable for the conduct of their clerks, respectively.

The succeeding sections of the ordinance directed the Auditor to receive all claims against the United States and refer them to one of the chambers of accounts, the commissioner of which was to turn them over to his clerks for a careful examination. The accounts were then to be transmitted to the Auditor, with the findings of the commissioner indorsed upon them. The ordinance required that:

The Auditor shall receive the vouchers and accounts from the Commissioners to whom he referred them, and cause them to be examined by his clerk * * * and after careful examination of the accounts as aforesaid, he * * * shall transmit the accounts and vouchers to the Comptroller,

who had the final action thereon.

In this early stage, when the business of the Government under the confederation was so limited that two clerks in the Auditor's office and two in the Comptroller's office were sufficient to pass upon all of the accounts, the divided responsibility in the accounting system was recognized and the accounts practically received three examinations; first, by the clerks in the commissioner's office; next by those in the Auditor's office, and finally by those in the Comptroller's office.

This scheme of accounting, under the ordinance of September 26, 1778, corresponds in very many respects with the Treasury system of to day, as established by the organic act of September 2, 1789.

ANALYSIS OF SECTION 19 OF H. R. BILL NO. 6948 (DOCKERY BILL) TO IMPROVE THE METHODS OF ACCOUNTING IN THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT.

The annual appropriations for the various expenses of the Government; the accounts for its "receipts and expenditures," and all of the official ledgers and other records of the financial transactions and business of the Government and of its officers, are made for, accounted for, and reported by fiscal years, commencing July 1 of one year and ending June 30 of the next year. Thus, this is the fiscal year 1894, ending June 30, 1894. All accounts of officers of the United States under annual appropriations are rendered, adjusted, and closed each fiscal year, and all reports of the heads of departments, bureaus, and offices of the Government are made for, and cover such fiscal years.

H. R. bill No. 6948, as it passed the House, provides in section 19 that all accounts which are stated and adjusted by the present Auditors by July 1, 1894, shall be examined, revised, adjusted, and certified as they are now, by the present Comptrollers. All accounts examined and adjusted by accounting officers from and after July 1, 1894, shall be under the new law, new accounting officers, and system provided by that bill.

The originators of the "Dockery bill," and the committee in charge of same, do not, apparently, see that the above division will break into and separate the accounts and records of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1894, for on the 1st day of July, 1894, only a part of the accounts of "receipts and expenditures" for the quarter ending March 31, 1894 (third quarter 1894), will have been examined and stated by the Auditors and adjusted by the Comptrollers, and none of the quarterly accounts

for the fourth quarter 1894, ending June 30, will have been rendered or received or stated by July 1, 1894.

The result of this will be that all of the accounts for the three quarters of the fiscal year 1894, beginning July 1, 1893, and ending March 31, 1894, will have been rendered, received, and mostly adjusted by one set of officers and clerks and recorded in the books of the present accounting officers under the present law and accounting system, while all of the accounts for the fourth and last quarter of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1894, will be rendered to and adjusted by a separate and different set of officers and clerks and recorded in newly opened record books of the new accounting offices, and under the new system.

This proposal can not be carried into effect without producing never-ending trouble, confusion, perplexity, and dissatisfaction everywhere in the settlement and recording of the accounts of the fiscal year 1894. To retain the continuity of accounts, records, appropriations, and of accounting action all accounts of all officers of the United States, for the receipts and expenditures of the Government during and for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1894, and for prior years, should be adjusted by the present accounting officers under the present system and should be recorded in the current books and records of the present accounting offices. Then all accounts for the current fiscal year will be examined and adjusted by the same officers and clerks, and under the same system, and will be all recorded together, so that at any time thereafter they may be promptly, safely, and easily found and referred to.

The new system, if it is to go into effect at all, should at least only apply to accounts rendered for the receipts and expenditures of the Government from and after July 1, 1894.

Then the new methods, new records, new accounting officers, and clerks will begin, be opened, and commence operations on accounts under appropriations for the fiscal year 1895, beginning July 1, 1894.

This will also give a very little greatly needed time, say three or four months, to formulate the necessary and essential rules and regulations for the new system of accounting and for the new officers and clerks, and to prepare and have printed the very large quantity and numbers of new blank forms, records, and books, which will be absolutely required before anything can be done by the new officers, and also to transfer the old records, as well as the old clerks, if they do transfer the latter instead of discharging them.

Common sense should teach legislators that such radical changes of methods, offices, and of men in accounting for $1,000,000,000 annually can not be successfully put in operation in a day, and by a simple edict. Something more than "be it resolved" is necessary to effect this change, which is to overturn the safeguards and established practices of over a hundred years and give up safe experience for untried theories.

The amendment proposed by Mr. Wanger, of Pennsylvania, in the House just before the bill was passed in Committee of the Whole, viz, to postpone the operation of this change until the 1st day of July, 1895, was safe, wise, prudent, and judicious, and would at least give a chance for the new system to be inaugurated under auspices which possibly might make it successful.

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IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 13, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. GALLINGER submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Secretary of the Treasury and the Secr the Interior be directed to transmit to the Senate, in separate li names of all clerks and employees appointed, promoted, reduc dismissed since the fourth day of March, eighteen hundred and three, and the State to which each such clerk or employee is acc also that such of them as served in the Army or Navy of the States at any time during the war of the rebellion shall be des by some distinguishing mark in each list.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 147.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 14, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Fisheries and ordered to be printed.

Mr. CALL submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on Fisheries be, and they are hereby, instructed to inquire and report to the Senate, by bill or otherwise, the condition of the fisheries on the coasts and rivers of the United States, including the sponge fisheries, and the legislation necessary for the protection and increase of the fish and sponges.

O

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 14, 1894.—Laid on the table and ordered to be printed.

Mr. HILL submitted the following

AMENDMENT

Intended to be proposed to the Rules of the Senate.

Resolved, That Rule nine be amended by adding thereto the ing section:

SEC. 2. Whenever any bill or resolution is pending before the Senate as u business, and the same shall have been debated on divers days, amounting thirty days, it shall be in order for any Senator at any time to move to fix a the taking of a vote upon such bill or resolution, and such motion sha amendable or debatable, and shall be immediately put, and if passed by a of all the members of the Senate, the vote upon such bill or resolution, wi amendments thereto which may be pending at the time of such motion, sha at the date fixed in such original motion without further debate or am except by unanimous consent; and during the pendency of such motion to and also at the time fixed by the Senate for voting upon bill or resolution motion of any kind or character shall be entertained until such motion or or resolution shall have been finally voted upon.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 149.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 14, 1894.—Ordered to lie on the table and be printed.

Mr. HILL presented the following

AMENDMENT

Intended to be proposed to the Rules of the Senate.

Resolved, That subdivision two of Rule five of the Standing Rules of the Senate be, and the same is hereby, amended so as to read as follows:

If at any time during the daily sessions of the Senate a question shall be raised by any Senator as to the presence of a quorum, the Presiding Officer shall forthwith direct the Secretary to call the roll and shall announce the result, and these proceedings shall be without debate; but no Senator while speaking shall be interrupted by any other Senator raising the question of the lack of a quorum, and the question as to the presence of a quorum shall not be raised oftener than once in every hour, but this provision shall not apply where the absence of a quorum is disclosed upon any roll call of the yeas and nays.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 150.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 14, 1894.—Ordered to lie on the table and be printed.

Mr. HILL presented the following

AMENDMENT:

Intended to be proposed to the Rules of the Senate.

Resolved, That Rule twelve be amended by inserting an additional clause, as follows:

When upon a vote by yeas and nays it shall appear to the Presiding Officer, upon recapitulation and before the announcement of the result, that a quorum has not voted he shall call upon Senators present who have not voted by name to vote, and shall direct the Secretary to add to the list of the Senators voting the names of the Senators present not voting, including those announcing pairs, or who may or may not be excused from voting, and to enter the same in the Journal; and if the whole number constitute a quorum, and it shall appear that a majority of a quorum (or two-thirds of a quorum where the Constitution prescribes a majority of two-thirds) has voted on either side, the question shall be deemed to have been determined and the result shall be announced the same as if a quorum had voted.

O

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 14, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. PEFFER submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Whereas there exists in many places and on the part of large numbers of citizens, individually and in organized bodies, a disposition to visit the city of Washington for the purpose of personally presenting to Congress their views with respect to pending and prospective measures of legislation;

Whereas many of such persons and bodies are reported to be now on their way hither, with others likely to follow, for the purposes aforesaid; and

Whereas, to the end that these, our petitioners, shall have full and respectful hearing, and that proceedings attending their communications with the Senate shall be orderly and not subjected to interruption by the transaction of other public business: Therefore,

Be it resolved, That a select committee of nine members of the Senate be appointed by the Vice-President, to be known as the Committee on Communication, whose duty it shall be to receive all written or printed communications from citizens or bodies of citizens visiting the capital, or intending to make such visit, for the purposes mentioned in the preamble hereto, and to receive all petitions, memorials, and remonstrances of such persons and bodies and hear them orally in relation to the matters and things about which they desire to communicate with the Senate. The committee shall report fully to the Senate, from time to time, as other committees report.

The Sergeant at Arms will set aside a convenient room in the Capitol, or other building belonging to the Government, for the use of said committee and furnish the same with the necessary articles for the convenient dispatch of business.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 152.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 17, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Military Affairs and ordered to be printed.

Mr. MANDERSON presented the following:

PETITION FROM THE INMATES OF THE SOLDIERS' HOME OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA IN RELATION TO THE PROPOSITION TO CHARGE THE PENSIONS OF INMATES WITH BOARD UP TO $14

WASHINGTON, D. C., *April 13, 1894.*

To the Senate of the United States:

The inmates of the United States Soldiers' Home, District of Columbia, would respectfully present to your notice the following statement, this in view of the presentation of a bill relative to the pensions of certain inmates, and a proposition that all inmates drawing a pension or more than $6 per month be required to pay the remainder for board up to $14 per month; and that any sum in excess of said $14 be held in trust for said inmate until he shall have left the Home or died.

We would first call your attention to the income of the Home for 1893, as shown by the report of the board of commissioners for that year, as follows, viz:

On account of deserters and dishonorably discharged men	$19,360.72
From court-martial fines (estimated)	80,000.00
Deduction of 12½ cents (estimated)	35,866.53
Interest on permanent fund	74,393.81
Effects of deceased inmates and miscellaneous sources	4,216.38
Total	213,817.44

This report further states that good discipline without undue restrictions has been maintained.

The inmates of the Home claim that they entered into a contract, to the effect that by the payment of a stipulated monthly sum they were entitled to the benefits of the United States Soldiers' Home after an honorable service of twenty years, or when disabled from further duty by disabilities incurred in the service and in the line of duty. These men have fulfilled their contract and do not think it just that the Government of the United States should annul the same. That a soldier should be disabled in the line of duty is not his fault, but his misfortune, and because the Government grants a pension for his misfortune, we ask, is that a just cause for taking away a large portion of it to pay for what has already been conceded his own?

There are but few of us here who would not have gladly served our full thirty years to enable us to be retired, had our physical condition warranted the same, or had we been able to pass the scrutiny of the examining surgeons.

Referring to that part of the pension in excess of the small amount per month ($6) allowed for personal use, and the $8 for board, being held in trust until discharged from the Home, or until death, we would respectfully state that, although the Home furnishes clothing to its inmates, still, nearly every one who can possibly muster means sufficient for the purpose purchases citizens' clothing and such other articles as may enable him to present a creditable appearance in society, as our situation here does not necessarily debar us from social relations with the outside world and with those among whom our uniform might seem incongruous. Then, still further, all the inmates have relatives—children, brothers or sisters, nephews or nieces—and though they may not look to us for aid in their support, we, nevertheless, cherish that privilege dear to every man of occasionally presenting them with some token of remembrance on birthdays and other festivals. So, too, all of us look forward to an occasional visit to such relations and our early homes.

These matters might be dilated upon until patience is exhausted. We simply ask that before action is taken upon this bill a careful consideration of the fairness of our cause and the great pecuniary injury its passage will inflict upon more than 500 honorably discharged soldiers of the regular Army of the United States of America, the majority of whom have given twenty years and upwards of the prime of their manhood to the service of their country and their flag.

SOLDIERS' HOME,
Washington, April 13, 1894.

Resolved, That we, the inmates of the Soldiers' Home, at Washington, D. C., protest against the bill introduced and presented to Congress by the Hon. C. F. Manderson, U. S. S., making it obligatory for the inmates of said institution to pay board while residing at the Home.

We object to such provision:

1st. Because this property is our fortune domain, purchased and paid for by contributions of lawful money subscribed by us from our pay while serving in the Army, and because such a law would be an arbitrary prostitution of our rights as American citizens, and that of a pauper and a slave.

2nd. Because Congress never intended any man, or set of men, other than the Supreme Court of the United States, to construe their acts null; and, furthermore:

Because the General of the Army and Board of Commissioners of the Home are not in good faith with the law enacted by the Congress and confirmed by the Supreme Court of the United States to be valid and just, and we should not now be subjected to any process that would change the law at the instance nor to the desire of the commissioners or any allied number of men thus set hard against us for no just reason to attempt to render the law void.

That the law as it stands is, in effect, legally determined to be just; and whereas, an abrogation of it would be fraught with great distress to the veterans who have marched and fought through all the wars from the Florida Everglades to the halls of Montezuma; likewise it would be a breach of the promise given to the men by the Government of the United States of America at the time of enlistment in the

Army of the United States of America; occasion discontent and militate against good order and military discipline, and undoubtedly would prove an excellent pretext to add to the already large yearly list of desertions from the Army.

Therefore, we pray Congress not to suffer the error of this unjust act to pass.

C. F. GILLIES,
President.

FRANCIS L. BOURASSO,
Secretary.

[PUBLIC—No. 69.]

AN ACT prescribing regulations for the Soldiers' Home at Washington, in the District of Columbia, and for other purposes.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the Board of Commissioners of the Soldiers' Home shall every year report in writing to the Secretary of War, giving a full statement of all receipts and disbursements of money, of the manner in which the funds are invested, of any change in the investments, and the reasons therefor; of all admissions and discharges, and, generally, of all facts that may be necessary to a full understanding of the condition and management of the Home. The Secretary of War shall have power to call for and require any omitted facts, which, in his judgment, should be stated, to be added. This annual report shall be, by the Secretary of War, together with the report of the inspecting officer hereinafter provided for, transmitted to Congress at the first session thereafter, and he shall also cause the same to be published in orders to the Army, a copy thereof to be deposited in each garrison and post library.

SEC. 2. That the Inspector-General of the Army shall, in person, once in each year, thoroughly inspect the Home, its records, accounts, management, discipline, and sanitary condition, and shall report thereon in writing, together with such suggestions as he desires to make.

SEC. 3. That no new buildings shall be erected or new grounds purchased, nor shall any expenditure of more than five thousand dollars be made, until the action of the board thereon shall be approved by the Secretary of War. All supplies that can be purchased upon contract shall be so purchased, after due notice by advertisement, of the lowest responsible bidder. Such bidder shall give bond with proper security for the performance of his contract.

SEC. 4. That any inmate of the Home who is receiving a pension from the Government, and who has a child, wife, or parent living, shall be entitled by filing with the pension agent from whom he receives his money a written direction to that effect, to have his pension, or any part of it, paid to such child, wife or parent. The pensions of all who are now or shall hereafter become inmates of the Home, except such as shall be assigned as aforesaid, shall be paid to the treasury of the Home. The money thus derived shall not become a part of the funds of the Home, but shall be held by the treasurer in trust for the pensioner to whom it would otherwise have been paid, and such part of it as shall not sooner have been paid to him shall be paid to him on his discharge from the institution. The Board of Commissioners may, from time to time, pay over to any inmate such part of his pension money as they think best for his interest and consistent with the discipline and good order of the Home; but such pensioner shall not be entitled to demand or have the same as long as he remains an inmate of the Home. In case of the death of any pensioner, any pension money due him and remaining in the hands of the treasurer shall be paid to his legal heirs, if demand is made within three years; otherwise the same shall escheat to the Home.

SEC. 5. That a suitable uniform shall be furnished to every inmate of the Home without cost to him.

SEC. 6. That the Board of Commissioners are authorized to aid persons who are entitled to admission to the Home, by outdoor relief, in such manner and to such an extent as they may deem proper, but such relief shall not exceed the average cost of maintenance of an inmate of the Home.

SEC. 7. That the governor and all other officers of the Home shall be selected by the President of the United States, and the treasurer of the Home shall be required to give a bond in the penal sum of twenty thousand dollars for the faithful performance of his duty.

SEC. 8. That all funds of the Home not needed for current use, and which are not now invested in United States registered bonds, shall, as soon as received, or as soon as present investments can be converted into money without loss, be deposited in the Treasury of the United States to the credit of the Home, as a permanent fund, and shall draw interest at the rate of three per centum per annum, which shall be paid quarterly to the treasurer of the Home; and the proceeds of such registered bonds, as they are paid, shall be deposited in like manner. No part of the principal sum so deposited shall be withdrawn for use, except upon a resolution of the Board of Commissioners stating the necessity and approved by the Secretary of War.

SEC. 9. That no officers of the Home shall borrow any money on the credit of the Home for any purpose, nor shall any pledge of any of its property or securities for any purpose be valid.

SEC. 10. That the Board of Commissioners of the Soldiers' Home shall hereafter consist of the General in Chief commanding the Army, the Surgeon-General, the Commissary-General, the Adjutant-General, the Quartermaster-General, the Judge-Advocate-General, and the Governor of the Home, and the General in Chief shall be president of the Board, and any four of them shall constitute a quorum for the transaction of business.

SEC. 11. That all laws and parts of laws relating to the Soldiers' Home now in force and not inconsistent with this act are continued in force, and such as are inconsistent herewith are to that extent repealed.

SEC. 12. That the sum of ten thousand dollars is hereby appropriated out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, to be expended by the Secretary of the Treasury in the employment of additional clerical force to be used in adjusting the accounts in the Treasury Department of those funds which under the law belong to the Soldiers' Home.

Approved March 3, 1883.

[Extract from recruiting service regulations, U. S. Army.]

For soldiers who have become infirm during twenty years' service, or who have been discharged for wounds received or sickness brought on in service, a comfortable Home is maintained in the city of Washington. Twelve and a half cents per month is deducted from each soldier's pay to be applied toward the support of the Home. After thirty years' service enlisted men are entitled to be retired, and upon retirement receive three-fourths of the monthly pay allowed by law to them in the grade they held when retired, with commutation for allowances of clothing and subsistence.

Adjutant-General's Office,
Washington, D. C.

THIS BILL IS DISPROPORTIONED.

Because the inmates of the Home may have only a few months' service and be rated at thirty or more dollars per month, while the man who, having served faithfully twenty or more years, may have his pension affixed at $12 per month. Thus, the man of long and meritorious service, after paying $8 per month board, would have left the pittance of $6; while he who is drawing $30 would have a monthly income of $22. Therefore, the bill is not in accordance with the laws and principles of equity; hence, it is not in conformity with the constitutional law, nor within the rectitude of fair dealing of fair men with each other.

Rates of pensions of inmates of Soldiers' Home and amounts which would be paid for board.

Eight dollars per month, 109, $2 per month	$218.00
Ten dollars per month, 47, $4 per month	188.00
Twelve dollars per month, 185, $6 per month	1,110.00
Twelve dollars and fifty cents per month, $6.50 per month	6.50
Fourteen dollars and upwards per month, 192, $8 per month	1,536.00
Total amount to be paid per month	3,058.50
Total per year	36,702.00

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 153.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 17, 1894.—Ordered to lie on the table and be printed.

Mr. GALLINGER presented the following

JOINT REPORT:

FROM THE SECRETARIES OF THE DIFFERENT DEPARTMENTS RESPECTING THE ANNUAL SETTLEMENT OF THE PUBLIC ACCOUNTS, DECEMBER 6, 1816.

In obedience to the resolution of the Senate of the 20th of April last, requiring the Secretaries of the Departments to report jointly to the Senate, in the first week of the next session of Congress, a plan to insure the annual settlement of the public accounts, and a more certain accountability of the public expenditure in their respective Departments, the undersigned have the honor to report:

That in order to comply with the requisitions of the resolution, and to satisfy the just expectations of the Senate, it is necessary to inquire into the causes of the delay in the annual settlement of accounts, and the want of sufficient certainty in the accountability of the respective Departments, upon which the resolution is predicated.

An attentive review of the principles upon which the several Departments of the Government were originally organized, and of the changes which have necessarily been made in that organization, appears to be necessary at the threshold of this investigation.

By referring to the laws for organizing the several Departments of the Government, they will be found to be extremely general in their terms, leaving the distribution of the duties and powers of the Secretaries, in a considerable degree, to executive regulation. The law organizing the Treasury Department, however, specifically refers to that Department the settlement of all public accounts. The pecuniary embarrassments by which the Government was pressed at that period, requiring a system of the most rigid economy in the public disbursements, could not fail to give peculiar force to the idea, that the Department charged with the replenishments of the Treasury should have a direct control over the public expenditure. Under the influence of this idea, all purchases for supplying the Army with provisions, clothing, supplies in the Quartermaster's Department, military stores, Indian goods, and all other supplies or articles for the use of the War Department, were, by executive regulation, directed to be made by the Treasury Department.

The first important change which was made in the organization of the War Department was effected by the act of the 8th of May, 1792, which

created the office of accountant of that Department, and referred to that officer the settlement of all accounts relative to the pay of the Army, the subsistence of the officers, bounties to soldiers, expenses of the recruiting service, and the incidental and contingent expenses of the Department. The accounts settled by the accountant were to be certified quarterly and sent to the accounting officers of the Treasury for their revision. This act continues with the Treasury Department the power of making for the War Department, the purchases before enumerated.

On the 30th of April, 1798, the Navy Department was created. From the organization of the Government to this date the Secretary of War executed the orders of the President in relation to the Navy. On the 16th of July, in the same year, the office of accountant of the Navy was created and the settlement of all accounts in the Navy Department was referred to that office. On the same day the power of the Treasury Department to make contracts for the War Department was rescinded and all the accounts of that Department were thenceforward settled by the accountant.

The power of revision, both as to the accounts of the War and Navy Departments, was, and still is, reserved to the accounting officers of the Treasury. This power, however, from the period of the primary settlement of the accounts of the War and Navy Departments was withdrawn from the Treasury, ceased to be useful, and has been preserved merely for the sake of form. In the Treasury, balances or debts admitted on settlement are paid only upon the report of the Auditor, confirmed by the Comptroller, whose decision is final. In the War and Navy Departments the sums reported by the accountants to be due to individuals are paid without waiting for the revision of the accounting officers of the Treasury. This practice, which has been adopted in some measure from necessity, is not believed to be incompatible with the provisions of the law requiring that revision. The accountants of the War and Navy Departments are required to transmit quarterly all the accounts which have been settled to the Treasury Department for final revision. It could not have been the intention of Congress that an officer or an individual, to whom money was found to be due by the report of the accountant of either of these Departments, should wait for payment not only until the expiration of the quarter but until his accounts should be reexamined by the Auditor of the Treasury and also by the Comptroller.

The delays to which this course would necessarily have led must have produced a state of confusion which, in a short period, could not have failed to have obstructed all the operations of the Government. On the other hand, it is manifest that from the moment payments were made upon the settlement of the accountants, before the revisionary power of the Treasury officers was exercised, revision became useless. The leading feature of the organic laws of the Departments, that the settlement of the public accounts should exclusively rest with the Department which was charged with the replenishment of the Treasury, was substantially abandoned. The form, indeed, was preserved, but the vital principle was extinguished.

It is probable that more importance was attached to this principle by those who presided over the primary organization of the Departments than it intrinsically merits. The power of the accounting officers, whether belonging to the Treasury Department or to those in which the disbursements are made, to enforce economy in any branch of the public service, must necessarily be extremely limited.

In disbursements for the pay, subsistence, and clothing of the Army, whilst rations are furnished by contracts, the most rigid economy may be easily enforced. In the Quartermaster's Department, and where provisions are supplied by a commissariat, the accounting officers can exercise but a very limited control. The principal reliance of the Government for economy in those Departments must be upon the integrity of the persons employed. Over the contingent disbursements of the War and Navy Departments, which in time of war are considerable, and which, in all governments, are extremely liable to abuse, the accounting officers have still less control. For economy in that branch of the public service, the heads of those Departments must be responsible to the nation. From this view of the subject it appears not to be so important that the public accounts should be settled in the Treasury Department as that they should be promptly and finally settled.

Whatever diversity of opinion may exist upon this subject it is believed that there can be none upon the propriety of either returning to the principle upon which the Departments were originally organized, of referring the settlement of all public accounts immediately to the Treasury Department, or of finally settling the accounts of the War and Navy Departments without the intervention of the accounting officers of the Treasury. The former has the recommendation of unity and simplicity in theory, and it is believed that no serious inconvenience will result from it in practice. The latter would insure the prompt and final settlement of the accounts of the several Departments, but might possibly lead to the establishment of different principles in the settlement of the public accounts in the respective Departments. Under judicious regulations it is believed that the prompt and final settlement of the public accounts may be as effectually secured by the former as by the latter modification.

Whichever modification may be adopted, an increase in the number of the accounting officers appears to be indispensable. From the year 1792, when the office of accountant of the War Department was created, to the year 1798, when all the accounts of the War Department were referred for settlement to that officer, the military force of the United States was not so extensive as the present military peace establishment. The duties assigned the accountant at the former period was, as has already been stated, the settlement of all accounts relative to the pay of the Army, the subsistence of officers, bounties to soldiers, expenses of the recruiting service, and the contingent expenses of the War Department. The services required by that act are believed to be sufficient to give full employment to one accounting officer. By the act of 1798 the settlement of the accounts relative to the subsistence of the Army, the quartermaster's department, the clothing department, the purchase of arms and munitions of war, and to the Indian department, were referred to the accountant of the War Department.

The additional duties imposed upon the accountant by this act have been so great that some of the accounts of the War Department, nearly of the same date, remain still unsettled. It is, therefore, confidently believed that the duties imposed upon the accountant by this act require the undivided attention of another accounting officer.

In contemplation of the law the Comptroller of the Treasury revises all the accounts of the Government, for the purpose of correcting the errors both of fact and of law which may have been committed by the accounting officers, to whom their settlement is, in the first instance,

committed. He is likewise charged with the superintendence of the collection of the revenue arising from duties and tonnage, and directs the collection, by suit, of all debts due to the United States. It has been already stated that the revision of the accounts settled by the accountants of the War and Navy Departments by this officer has always been merely nominal. The enumeration just given of the extent and variety of the duties imposed upon him will satisfy every reflecting mind that they must continue to be so. Should this officer be relieved from the superintendence of the collection of imposts and duties and of suits for recovery of debts due the United States by the assignment of those the duties to another officer, still, it is believed, he would not be able to revise all the accounts of the Government so as to be, in fact, the check upon the auditing officers which the law contemplates. When the office of the Comptroller was created and the duties of that officer prescribed, the Auditor of the Treasury was the only accounting officer whose acts he had to revise. At present, he has to revise the settlements made by three accounting officers; and, according to the plan which it is the duty of the undersigned to propose, in order to insure the annual settlement of the public accounts there will be five accounting officers whose acts are to be revised. From this view of the subject the appointment of an additional comptroller appears to be indispensable.

It has been previously stated that the mass of business thrown upon the accountant of the War Department by the act of the 16th of July, 1798, has produced an arrearage in the settlement of the accounts of that Department almost coeval with that date. This observation was intended to apply to the accounts appropriately belonging to the Department, arising from the administration of the military establishment. But the accounts of the Indian department, without a solitary exception, have remained unsettled from that date to the present period. This has resulted from the fact that the Secretary of War is substantially the auditor of all the Indian accounts. It is also his duty to inquire into and decide upon all claims exhibited by the citizens of the United States for property stolen or destroyed by the Indian tribes to whom annuities are payable, and where they are proved to his satisfaction to direct compensation to be made to the injured party out of the annuity payable to the offending tribe. These duties, together with the examination of the contingent expenses of the Department, which must also receive his special sanction if duly attended to, would leave him no time to devote to the more important and appropriate duties of his station. The consequence has been that the Indian accounts have remained unsettled, and must continue so, until a different organization of the Department shall be effected.

It is obvious to the mind of every reflecting man that the duties imposed upon the Secretary of War in relation to the Indian department have no rational connection with the administration of the military establishment. From the view that has been presented it is conceived that the public interest requires that the Secretary of War should be relieved from further attention to those duties. It then becomes necessary to inquire whether those duties can, consistently with the public interest, be assigned to either of the other Departments. An examination into the duties required of those Departments, it is confidently believed, can not fail to produce the most decided conviction that no additional duties ought to be imposed upon them under their present organization. On the other hand, there is good reason

to believe that the public interest would be promoted by relieving those Departments of several branches of the public service at present committed to their respective charges.

The retrenchments which, with great advantage to the public interest, might be made in the duties now imposed upon the Secretaries of the respective Departments and the General Post-Office would furnish ample employment for the head of another independent department.

An appropriate assignment of duties to the chief of the new department would embrace the Territorial governments, the Indian Department, the General Post-Office, roads and canals, and the Patent Office, and such other branches of the public service as may be deemed expedient.

But the defects in the organization of the existing departments are not the only reasons why the public accounts are not annually settled.

The want of power to compel those to whom the collection or disbursement of the public money has been confided to render their vouchers and settle their accounts, when required, has largely contributed to swell the list of unsettled accounts. The power of dismissing from office for misfeasance or nonfeasance in office, especially with the collecting officers, is sufficiently coercive as long as the conduct of the officer will bear examination, and powerfully contributes to keep him in the line of his duty; but when the settlement of his accounts must expose his guilt, and especially when he has been dismissed from office, this coercion entirely ceases.

With disbursing offices, and particularly in the military establishment, this mode of coercion is much more feeble. In that department, too, there is the strongest reason for the adoption of the most vigorous measures to bring to a prompt and final settlement those who have been intrusted with the disbursement of money, particularly in the Quartermaster's and Paymaster's departments. Until the accounts of the quartermaster-general of an army or of a military district are settled it is impossible to settle the accounts of the deputies and assistants, the barrack-masters, forage masters, and wagon masters employed with the same army or in the same district. The same observation applies to the pay departments. Until the deputy paymaster-general settles his accounts, or at least until he renders his vouchers, none of the district, assistant district paymasters or regimental paymasters can settle their accounts. This observation applies to the several grades in both departments. Thus a single officer who knows himself to be a public defaulter may, by standing aloof, and by procrastinating the decisions of law after suit is brought, prevent for years the settlement of the accounts of other officers who may be solicitous to adjust them.

It is the peculiar province of the legislature to apply appropriate remedies for every evil disclosed by the practical operations of the Government. The one now under consideration, taken in connection with the inability of the accounting officers to settle annually the public accounts, has produced more serious consequences to the national treasury than every other united. The conviction on the part of an officer that his accounts can not, or will not, be settled for years, presents a certain degree of impunity to embezzlement and powerfully tempts to the commission of it. The necessity of resorting to an action at law to enforce the settlement of accounts, or to recover money embezzled by an officer, ought to be avoided, if it can be done, consistently with the provisions of the Constitution. In some of the States

this necessity is avoided, the public money retained by a revenue officer being collected by execution issued by the State treasurer. If this or a similar principle could be acted upon by the United States, embezzlement would not be frequent.

In conformity with these preliminary observations, the undersigned respectfully propose that it is expedient—

First. That another independent department of the Government be organized to be denominated the "Home Department."

That the secretary of this department shall execute the orders of the President in relation to—

(1) The Territorial governments.
(2) The national highways and canals.
(3) The General Post-Office.
(4) The Patent Office.
(5) The Indian Department.

Second. That the primary and final settlement of all accounts to be made in the Treasury Department, and that the organization of that Department be modified so as to authorize the appointment of—

(1) Four additional Auditors.
(2) One additional Comptroller.
(3) One Solicitor.
(4) That the Mint establishment be placed under the direction of the Treasury Department.

Third. That the office of accountant of the War and Navy Department and of the superintendent-general of military supplies be abolished.

Fourth. That the survey of the coast be confided to the Navy Department.

According to the modification here recommended, the—

First Auditor will be charged with the settlement of the public accounts accruing in the Treasury Department.

Second Auditor will be charged with the settlement of all accounts relative to the pay and clothing of the Army, the subsistence of the officers, bounties and premiums, the recruiting service, and the contingent expenses of the War Department.

Third Auditor will be charged with the settlement of all accounts relative to the subsistence of the Army, the Quartermaster's Department, the Hospital Department, and the Ordnance Department. Both of these Auditors will keep the property account connected with those branches of service in the War Department, confided to them respectively.

Fourth Auditor will be charged with the settlement of all accounts relative to the Navy Department. And the

Fifth Auditor will be charged with the settlement of all accounts relative to the State and Home Departments.

The First Comptroller being relieved from directing and superintending the recovery, by suits, of all debts due the Government, will revise all accounts settled by the First and Fifth Auditors.

Second Comptroller will revise all settlements made by the Second, Third, and Fourth Auditors.

The Solicitor of the Treasury will be charged with the recovery of debts due the Government, according to the forms prescribed by law.

It is probable that experience will suggest the propriety of making changes in the distribution of duties among the accounting officers of the Treasury. In order that they may be done with facility, and as

they shall be discovered to be necessary, it is respectfully recommended that the whole subject be left to executive regulation.

With this organization of the Departments the check contemplated by the revision of the Comptroller will be as effectual as it can be made. Money will then be paid in all the Departments upon the settlement of an auditor, only after it has been revised and approved by a comptroller.

If the Departments shall be thus organized, and vested with sufficient power to compel all officers employed in the collection or disbursement of the public money, to render their vouchers and settle their accounts, the annual settlement of the public accounts will be insured, and a more certain accountability established in the respective Departments.

If the officer intrusted with the recovery of money improperly detained by public officers was authorized to issue an execution for the sum appearing to be due, either upon settlement, or upon the failure to settle when called upon for that purpose, and that the execution so issued should be satisfied by the distress and sale of all the delinquent's property and that of his securities, one of the most formidable obstacles to the annual settlement of the public accounts would be surmounted.

It is believed that there is no constitutional objection to the adoption of this principle in relation to the officers of the Government who improperly withhold the public money. Under the law imposing the direct tax, the collector, on default of payment, is authorized to make the amount due by the levy and sale of the defaulter's property.

In this case there is, on the part of the defaulter, nothing but a breach of the general implied obligation which every citizen owes to the community to contribute to the wants of the State, in proportion to the property which he possesses. This breach may frequently be the result of inevitable necessity, and but seldom brings his integrity in question. In the case of the delinquent officer, there is, in most cases, a direct breach of special confidence involving the odious charge of peculation or embezzlement. Is there any reason why the remedy of the Government should be more summary in the former than in the latter case? Is there not, on the contrary, a clear distinction between the two cases entirely in favor of the tax defaulter? Can it be considered more important to the community that the revenue should be rigidly collected, than that it should be faithfully and honestly disbursed? Has the difference in the remedy arisen from the consideration that the one has withheld from the Government an hundred cents, which he ought to have paid, whilst the other has embezzled a thousand dollars of the public money thus summarily collected?

There can be no doubt that the different remedies in the two cases have resulted from the want of sufficient reflection, and not from design. The subject is now presented to the view of the Senate, and no doubt is entertained that that enlightened body will satisfy the demands of reason and of justice. It may be proper to observe, that the principle now recommended has been applied by the laws laying direct taxes, to the collectors of the internal revenue. The legislature, in relation to that class of officers, has even authorized the arrest and imprisonment of collectors who fail to collect, or neglect to pay after collection, and the seizure and sale of the property, real and personal, of his securities during their imprisonment. As the principle has already been applied to cases arising out of the collection of the revenue, it is respectfully con-

ceived that reasons more cogent call for its application to the disbursing officers of the Government. The different rules established in relation to those two classes of officers, if persevered in, can not fail to present the idea that the Government is more astute in devising means to raise and collect revenue, than in enforcing a faithful application of it when collected.

JAS. MONROE.
WM. H. CRAWFORD.
GEO. GRAHAM.
Acting Secretary of War.
B. W. CROWNINSHIELD.

Hon. JOHN GAILLARD,
President pro tempore of the Senate.

DECEMBER 6, 1816.

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IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 17, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations and or printed.

Mr. CALL submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the President be, and he is hereby, requeste tute negotiations with the Government of Spain for the de arbitration of the obligation of the United States under t with Spain of eighteen hundred and nineteen to pay intere principal sum awarded for losses sustained by subjects of Spa inhabitants of the provinces of the East and West Floridas question whether the treaty of eighteen hundred and nineteen carried into effect and performed by the United States in resp obligations assumed by them in the said treaty: *Provided*, sums of money allowed under such arbitration shall be pai the said claimants and their heirs or legal representatives, ar powers of attorney to represent such claimants, their heirs a sentatives, and all assignments of such claims, or any par shall be declared void and of no force or effect.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 155.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 17, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. ALLEN submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Secretary of the Treasury be, and he is hereby, directed to inform the Senate of the amount of appropriations made and expended by the Government for the improvement of rivers and harbors since the first day of January, eighteen hundred and sixty-five, to the present date, specifying the different rivers and harbors in which improvements have been made and the amounts expended therefor, respectively.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 156.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 18, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. FAULKNER, from the Committee on Territories, presented the following

REPORT FROM THE SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR IN REFERENCE TO SENATE BILL NO. 1302, FIFTY-THIRD CONGRESS, SECOND SESSION.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
Washington, March 31, 1894.

SIR: I am in receipt, by your reference, of Senate bill No. 1302, Fifty-third Congress, second session, "To establish the boundaries of the Yellowstone National Park, and for other purposes," with request for an expression of the views of the Department thereon.

In response thereto I have the honor to state that a bill (H. R. No. 7) similar in its position to the one above mentioned was referred to this Department for consideration, and was returned to the House Committee on the Public Lands on the 30th instant, with an adverse report, copy of which is herewith inclosed.

The objections therein set forth to the passage of H. R. bill No. 7 are equally applicable to Senate bill No. 1302, and indicate the views of the Department upon the latter.

Very respectfully,

HOKE SMITH,
Secretary.

Hon. CHARLES J. FAULKNER,
Chairman Committee on Territories, U. S. Senate.

ESTIMATED AREAS IN YELLOWSTONE PARK AND TIMBER RESERVATION.

The following are the estimated areas:

	Square miles.
Present area of Yellowstone Park	3,344
Areas returned to the States	367
Leaving to the park	2,977
Area of timber reservation	1,840
Area added to the park	1,200
Southwest corner returned to the State	170
Area returned to the States	640
Area proposed for the park	4,177
Proposed enlargement of park	833
Area Idaho Strip	37
Area Montana Strip	149
Area Yellowstone triangle	181
Southern timber reserve	500
Area retained	339
Proposed eastern reserve	870

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
OFFICE OF SUPERINTENDENT YELLOWSTONE NATIONAL PARK,
Mammoth Hot Springs, Wyo., October 30, 1893.

SIR: I return you herewith the bill "to establish the boundaries of the Yellowstone National Park," H. R. 7, with my strongest disapproval. It is the old enemy known hereabouts as the "segregation bill." The boundaries of the park as now fixed, and including the timber reserve, are thoroughly satisfactory, and should not be interfered with in any way.

It is proposed by this bill—

(1) To cut off all the park north of the Yellowstone, Lamar, and Soda Butte rivers.

(2) To cut off a northeast corner down to 44° 45′ north latitude.

(3) To cut off the southwest corner below the mouth of Lewis River.

Not one of the portions thus sought to be cut off is of the slightest use to any considerable number of people. It is claimed that the north part is needed as a right of way for a railroad to Cook City. The whole wealth of Cook would not pay *running expenses* on one train a year, and there is not the slightest chance of such a road *ever* being built.

The people of Livingston are the active boomers of this project, and the cause is obvious; they want to hold on to the trade of Cook, which is certain to slip away from them if transportation routes are opened in any other direction, as by the advancing "Burlington route."

In a word, these three cuts would each be squatted on by a crowd of poachers, trappers, and skin hunters. The north one would destroy the best (except one) winter range for elk; the northeast one would take the home of the mountain sheep; the southwest one would take the home of the few remaining moose, and encroach dangerously upon the summer range of the buffalo.

If any public good would be subserved I should not make strong opposition, but this bill is purely in the interest of private greed, and that, too, of not a very high order. I recommend that the bill receive your active, earnest opposition.

Yours very respectfully,

GEO. S. ANDERSON,
Captain Eighth Cavalry, Acting Superintendent Yellowstone National Park.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
Washington, March 30, 1894.

SIR: Your letter has been received, inclosing H. R. bill No. 7, "to establish the boundaries of the Yellowstone National Park and for other purposes," and requesting the views of the Department thereon.

In response thereto I have the honor to state that the Yellowstone National Park, the metes and bounds of which are described in section 2474 Revised Statutes United States, has an area of about 2,289,920 acres, or 3,578 square miles, and the timber-land reserve established by proclamation of the President, dated March 30, 1891, which abuts the eastern and southern boundaries of the park, and is practically a part thereof, being governed by the regulations applicable to the Yellowstone National Park and under the supervision of the acting superintendent thereof, has an area of 1,388,160 acres, or 2,169 square miles.

The bill hereinbefore referred to proposes to segregate from the Yellowstone Park 398,080 acres, or 622 square miles, and from the timber-land reserve 792,960 acres, or 1,239 square miles, making a total reduction from the present reserve areas of 1,191,040 acres, or 1,861 square miles. The boundaries of the park and of the timber reserve, as fixed by the statute and the proclamation above referred to, are thoroughly satisfactory, and no good reason, administrative or otherwise, has been presented showing the necessity for a change thereof, such as is contemplated by H. R. bill No. 7.

The bill proposes to take from the west side of the park a narrow strip of land situated in Idaho, and a narrow strip on the north side situated in Montana, returning the land in those States to the public domain and confining the park within the limits of the State of Wyoming. It also proposes to cut off the extreme northeast corner of the park and make the North Fork of the Yellowstone, sometimes called the Lamar River, the natural boundary; also to reduce the timber reserve by restoring a part thereof to the public domain, and including a portion thereof within the park proper.

I am advised that of the portions sought to be cut off from the park, (1) north of the Yellowstone, Lamar, and Soda Butte rivers; (2) the northeast corner of the park down to 44° 45′ north latitude; (3) the southwest corner below the mouth of the Lewis River, not one is of the slightest use to any considerable number of people.

Those sections would each be squatted upon by crowds of poachers, trappers, skin-hunters, and other undesirable characters, thereby augmenting the difficulties attending the enforcement of the regulations for the government of the park, which, even under existing conditions, are great. The taking away of the northern portion would destroy the best (except one) winter range for elk; the northeast would include the home of the mountain sheep, that of the southwest would also include the home of the few remaining moose, and encroach dangerously upon the summer range of the buffalo.

In addition to the foregoing objections, it may be stated generally that the passage of the bill in question would establish a bad precedent, and will only be the commencement of the turning of the entire reservation over to private interests, for if Congress diminishes these reservations, as is proposed by this bill, in the interest of those who desire to occupy that portion of the Territory carved out thereby, it can not consistently refuse to take off other portions for restoration to the public domain. Furthermore, there is no present need for the immediate use of any portion of the land desired to be taken from this park and reservation to satisfy the demands of the public, as there are thousands of acres of public lands unappropriated which are much better adapted for homestead purposes, timber product, and mining uses than that sought to be secured by the terms of this bill.

In this connection it is proper to add that bills similar in character to the one now under consideration have from time to time been submitted by Congress to the Department for its views, and have been uniformly returned with an expression of its disapproval.

I transmit herewith for your information a copy of a letter from the acting superintendent of the Yellowstone National Park, to whom the bill was referred for report, setting forth in detail his reasons for objecting to the passage of the bill, together with a copy of my annual report for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1893, in which the Yellowstone Park and its needs are fully discussed.

Very respectfully,

HOKE SMITH,
Secretary.

Hon. THOMAS C. MCRAE,
Chairman Committee on the Public Lands, House of Representatives.

FOREST AND STREAM PUBLISHING COMPANY,
New York, April 2, 1894.

SIR: In accordance with your verbal request of March 28, I write to express to your honorable committee my views with regard to the changes in boundaries of the Yellowstone National Park and the adjacent forest reservation proposed to be made by bills S. 1302 and S. 1753, the last named, I presume, taking the place of the earlier bill.

Before giving my reasons for the views hereinafter expressed, I beg leave to say that they are based on an experience of the Yellowstone Park and adjacent country extending over many years. I first entered this park in the year 1875 and have revisited it many times since, having spent months at a time in explorations in and near it and traveled over it in all directions. I venture to believe, therefore, that I know more about it than most people, for I saw it first when it was a wilderness without roads, houses, or hotel accommodations, and have watched the changes which have taken place during the nineteen years that have elapsed since my first visit.

During the twenty-two years that have passed since Congress saw fit to set aside this tract of country as a "public park or pleasure ground for the benefit of the people," none of the many attempts made by corporations and private persons to secure exclusive control of any of the wonderful and interesting features of the park have been successful. Congress has steadfastly set its face against anything of the sort, believing, and very justly, that the park was for the benefit of the whole people, and that any encroachment by private interests would be a serious injustice to the public. If the precedent thus established shall be now violated it will be less difficult in the future for other encroachments to be made on the park. If one corner is cut off at this session of Congress, it will be an easy matter at a subsequent session for someone to advance as plausible reasons for the cutting off of another corner. The paring down process once begun may not cease until the park has been robbed of every feature that now makes it so valuable.

The park is something more than a mere place where spouting geysers and boiling springs may be seen. Such features, while interesting, curious, and attractive to a large number of people, are unimportant when compared with the reservation's value as a storage reservoir for waters flowing east and west through the Yellowstone and Snake rivers, and as a shelter for the fast diminishing herds of American wild animals. The destruction of the park would certainly be followed by a great

diminution in volume of the water carried by these streams and used by farmers for purposes of irrigation throughout all the agricultural and stock country tributary to these rivers. The valleys of the Yellowstone and Lamar rivers, which it is proposed now to make the boundary for the park on the northeast, are a great resort for game in winter; so, also, is much of the country to the north and east of these streams. All the antelope at present to be found in the park range in that country in winter, the deep snows driving them down to the flats of the Yellowstone and Gardner rivers. There are also two herds of mountain sheep and a few buffalo in the country proposed to be cut off. These, as well as large numbers of elk which range there, would all be exterminated by the change of boundary.

It is stated that the boundaries of the park would be better defined on the northeast by a river than as at present by an imaginary line, but this is not true. As the boundary exists to-day the northeast corner of the park is walled in on the north by a range of impassable mountains. No settlers can inhabit there and lawbreakers can not pass over this barrier to destroy the game and fire the forests, but if the segregation bill should be passed, there will be substituted for this natural barrier—now a silent, effective, and inexpensive protection on the northeast—only a narrow river which can be easily crossed. To prevent incursions from the north bank of the Yellowstone River, large bodies of troops would be required to constantly patrol the south bank. The difficulties of administration would thus be vastly increased. The danger to all that renders the park desirable would be made more imminent. Whether it was mere chance or the wisdom of those who framed the original bill setting aside the National Park, the fact certainly is that this most important corner of the park is protected by nature far better than it could have been protected by the efforts of man even if vast sums had been expended for the purpose of keeping out lawbreakers.

The country proposed to be cut off from the National Park by this act is, on account of its altitude, entirely valueless for purposes of agriculture, and whatever grazing there may be on it is needed for the wild game which Congress has protected for more than twenty years. Much of the region consists of steep mountain sides and forms a valuable and necessary part of the watershed of the Yellowstone River. It is high and well timbered and so is admirably adapted to hold snow, and by allowing it to melt gradually it tends to keep the river always full and to prevent periods of very low water. It is thus of the utmost importance in regulating the water supply of the Yellowstone River and of great benefit to agriculture in the lower valley of that stream. The cutting off of this corner would inevitably result in the deforesting of these mountains and in consequent injury to agricultural interests lower down the stream.

The bill proposes to cut off also a large area of the forest reservation established by Presidential proclamation in accordance with the terms of the act of March 3, 1891, and now a part of the park. This forest reservation, being under the authority of the Secretary of the Interior, has by him been turned over to the superintendent of the Yellowstone Park for administration and control, and is thus practically—if not formally—part of the park. This region is a high, rough, timbered country, whose forests are of the utmost importance in protecting the heads of streams which empty into the Big Horn, a large river flowing through a territory where there is much agricultural land, but so arid that without irrigation no farming can be done. Congress should be slow to take any action that would interfere with the rights of the very large number of hard-working agriculturists who have built up for themselves homes along these streams.

I have satisfied myself by correspondence that the feeling in favor of this bill is confined to a small section of western Montana, only the mountain towns wishing to have the park cut down. On the other hand those Montana towns on the plains, such as Stillwater, Billings, Red Lodge, and others, are opposed to this bill, for they understand that the throwing open to settlement of the forest reservation and the northeast corner of the park will endanger their water supply, and without water they can not grow their crops nor sustain their herds. The newspapers of these plains towns reflect the strong sentiment which exists in their section, and are wholly opposed to the segregation of any portion of this reservation.

It is to be remembered that in the past almost all Government officials who have reported on the park have taken strong ground against the movement to segregate any part of it. This has been the attitude of all the Secretaries of the Interior, the superintendent of the park, and all the engineer officers in charge of it. It was the ground taken by the U. S. Geological Survey until within two years, since when there has been, it is understood, an absolute change of front, and at present the Director of the Survey recommends the passage of this bill. It should be said, however, that although he makes this recommendation he has never visited the region about which he writes.

I beg leave to recommend most strongly that no alteration whatever be made in the present boundaries of the park. Any change will inevitably result in extensive

destruction of forests, injury to the water supply, and in the slaughter of large numbers of wild animals which should be protected.

On the other hand, I beg leave to recommend with equal urgency the favorable reporting and speedy passage of a bill which shall establish some form of government for the national park. Laws should be enacted and officers appointed to enforce them; courts should be given jurisdiction; crimes and misdemeanors should be defined and penalties provided for them. As the region is like none other in the world, and as its value depends on the objects of nature, animate and inanimate, contained within its borders, the willful or careless injury to any of these natural objects, or their destruction, should be visited with very severe penalties. Congress has so long neglected this subject that lawless characters in the neighborhood of the park have become very bold and have committed depredations of the most serious character.

The forests, the mineral formations, and the game within the national park and forest reservation are public property, and any injury to this public property should be visited with penalties as severe as would apply to the destruction of domestic animals, or of manufactured products which are the property of the Government elsewhere. The recent slaughter of a large number of buffalo in the park has excited general condemnation, and I am constantly in receipt of letters from individuals and corporations urging the necessity of passing a suitable police bill.

I am convinced that your honorable committee appreciates the high importance of the subjects of this letter, and I respectfully beg you to take action in the matter.

Yours, respectfully,

GEO. BIRD GRINNELL.

Hon. CHAS. J. FAULKNER,
Chairman Committee on Territories, U. S. Senate,
Washington, D. C.

LOUISVILLE AND PORTLAND CANAL,
Louisville, Ky., March 31, 1894.

DEAR SIR: My only excuse for addressing you is the deep interest I take in certain measures now before the committee of which you are chairman, viz, those pertaining to the Yellowstone National Park. For two years I was stationed in the park (1891–'92) as local engineer officer, engaged in laying out and constructing tourist routes. I then became very much interested in that reservation and took considerable pains to study questions pertaining to its welfare. I became so thoroughly convinced that the long-sought segregation of a part of the park and the right of way for railroads through it were not only not demanded by any important interest, but would certainly be a disastrous blow at the existence of the park. Thus I have done all I could to prevent the success of such measures. I take the liberty of sending you two maps which will, perhaps, throw light on the subject. One is of the park alone and shows the principal game pasturage. I prepared it in the winter of 1893.

The other is a part of a map of the Western country, which I prepared in Omaha when I was engineer officer to Gen. Crook in 1887. It shows the proposed boundaries as outlined in Senate bills 43, 1302, and 1753. I have marked these numbers so as to show to which boundary they each refer.

As to these three bills it will be seen that 1302 and 1753 are essentially the same, the latter directing that the boundary follow the watersheds, but taking in on the whole about the same territory. Of course the practical difficulty of tracing out and actually marking a watershed line, where opposite valleys interlace with and overlap each other, would be something enormous; otherwise there is not, in my opinion, much choice between these bills.

Senator Vest's bill appears to me to be in every way preferable from the point of view of the welfare of the park. By looking at the park map you will see that the proposed boundary in 1302 and 1753 cuts the greatest game pasturage in two from one end to the other. With a railroad there and the grass burned off, and poachers all along the border, the game could not long survive. In a pamphlet which I inclose, and which I worked up in conjunction with Forest and Stream last winter, there is a full statement of the merits of the case. Recent developments confirm and emphasize all its arguments. The question really amounts to a handful of people about the park against the whole United States besides. I have never heard an individual support these measures unless directly or indirectly financially interested. I got so I could instantly tell from a man's conversation, when I was in the park, how he stood upon this question. If he owned property in Cooke, I knew he was a segregationist; if he favored the segregation scheme I knew he was financially interested in Cooke or in Livingston.

I hope these measures will be resisted. They could never succeed if the merits of the case were fully understood.

I would also ask your attention to House bill 5066, granting a right of way for the "Burlington" through the park. I have indicated on one map the proposed route as far as the Yellowstone River. For the rest of the way the company is given absolute carte blanche in selection of route. They are given a right of way 200 feet wide. What this would mean, anyone familiar with the park can readily see. It passes through the heart of the buffalo grazing ground; his choice of any or all of the geyser regions; and has thousands of acres of tinder waiting for its locomotive sparks. It would be, in every respect, a ruinous measure.

As I said, I am deeply interested in this subject, but I will not tax your time further. I hope you, as Senators Vest and Manderson have done before, will resist these insidious attacks on what is certainly a very important national domain. If Mr. Vest's bill could be passed it would, in my opinion, go very far toward giving the park that substantial protection which it so much needs.

Very truly, yours,

HIRAM M. CHITTENDEN,
First Lieutenant Engineers, U. S. Army.

Hon. CHARLES J. FAULKNER,
Chairmnn Committee on Territories, U. S. Senate, Washington.

U. S. ENGINEER OFFICE, LOUISVILLE AND PORTLAND CANAL,
Louisville, Ky., March 31, 1894.

DEAR SIR: Since writing my letter to you this morning I have perused more carefully Mr. Vest's bill, and am more than ever impressed with the fact that it is what the park wants. There is need of no further positive legislation in reference to that reservation than a law defining and directing the marking of the boundaries; defining offenses and fixing their penalties, and determining the legal jurisdiction of that territory; and, finally, some provision in reference to the roads. All these points are covered in bill 1753. It gives the best possible boundary and directs that it be marked. It provides for punishment of offenses in a way that would operate powerfully to prevent offenses like the recent deplorable slaughter of buffalo. What avails it to have an efficient superintendent, like the present, if he can not bring offenders to punishment?

Finally, it provides that the engineer officer in charge of roads shall actually reside in the park during the working season, instead of, as at present, a thousand miles away.

If this bill could become a law there would need no other legislation for many years to come.

Very truly, yours,

HIRAM M. CHITTENDEN.

Hon. CHAS. J. FAULKNER,
Chairman Committee on Territories, U. S. Senate.

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603 LOUISIANA AVENUE,
Washington, D. C., February 23, 1894.

DEAR SIR: I notice from the papers that your committee was addressed yesterday by my friend, Mr. Hague, on the subject of the boundaries of Yellowstone Park. From long experience no one is more competent to inform you on the subject than he. While I do not pretend to have the same technical knowledge he possesses, I think repeated visits to the park and a long study of the subject qualifies me to assert my views, which in some material respect are adverse to those of Mr. Hague. For years we have been acting together in the matter, both in the interest of the protection and enlargement of the park. The serious difficulty has always confronted us of the antagonism of a railroad interest seeking ingress to the park. Every time the bill protecting and enlarging the park passed the Senate (and it passed it over some six times) the railroad interest has succeeded in having its scheme engrafted on our bill in the House Committee on the Public Lands, so that we have preferred to see the measure fail in the House rather than to endanger its passage with a railroad measure attached to it. Finally, Mr. Hague has become weary of the continued conflict and has persuaded himself that it is better to segregate the northern portion of the park, so as to make the boundary on that side the Yellowstone River. In so doing he would throw out of the park 150,000 acres. The greater part of this area has been pronounced by the engineer authorities to be generally heavy timbered, and from its exposure admirably adapted to catch and hold the snow. "It allows the snow to melt gradually during the summer, and so maintains the uniform flow in the streams and springs tributary to the Yellowstone, and

thus tends to secure a uniform discharge in the river itself. If this tract of land was taken from the park it would soon be stripped of its timber, the snow would melt quickly in the spring, would cause a sudden freshet, and a corresponding period of very low water."

I refer the committee to the testimony of Capt. Kingman, engineer in charge of the Yellowstone Park, who states various other reasons of an economical nature to show that the Yellowstone River should not be made to constitute the northern boundary of the park, and that the segregation now desired should not be made. (H. R. Report No. 1076, Forty-ninth Congress, first session, p. 249.)

Mr. Hague himself was asked this question: "How far, if at all, does a scheme for constructing a railroad to a mining point east of the park, called Cook, enter into the question made as to a change in the northern boundary of the park?" Answer: "The people who desire a railroad to Cook City wish to make the Yellowstone River the boundary of the park in order to follow up the north bank. This would make the north boundary of the park considerably south of the 45th parallel, and would leave a wedge-shaped area of Wyoming north of the park. The effect of this would be to throw open an extensive region of timbered country and a large area drained by the east fork of the Yellowstone, which, in my opinion, would be detrimental to the interests of the park and the Yellowstone River. A railroad, if really necessary, could be constructed to reach Cook City from Billings, on the Northern Pacific Railroad, without invading the park."

I think the reasons alleged by Mr. Hague still continue to hold good, and I am of opinion that it has been established, by surveys actually made on the ground, or at least the general courses of which have been run, that Cook City can be reached, as Mr. Hague himself said, without touching the park. This is the view which is shared by the editor of Forest and Stream, who has given more attention to the matter than anyone else, and who has concluded that the segregation of the northern portion of the park would be most detrimental to the reservation. I am aware that Mr. Hague and some others think the influence of the railroad so potent that some concession has to be made to it, and that it is better to yield up a portion of the park than to retain that portion within its boundaries and with a right of way. But I am not satified that if, as I believe, the concession would be a wrong one, anything would be gained by making it. On the contrary, I believe it would be the excuse for further aggressions and encroachments upon the park on the part of the many corporations already desirous of entering. I think, therefore, that sufficient interest and support will be found in Congress to preserve the park in its integrity. If, indeed, anything important enough to justify the sacrifice were gained, it might be a matter for deliberation; but as I understand it, the question now before your committee is simply one as to the boundaries of the park, and does not afford the much-needed protection provided for by the Vest bill, which so frequently has passed the Senate. That bill contained measures of police and jurisdiction so much needed, for it is astonishing that Congress has for so long neglected to provide any penalties for the most serious offenses committed in the park or to provide any jurisdiction to try offenders.

As I understand it, the bill now before you is the one favored by Senators Warren and Carey. I wish you to examine the map inclosed, which I will be pleased if you will return, and see what the measure really gives to the park and what it takes away. And first, as to the increase. The bill adds on a strip to the east and to the south. This area is what now constitutes the Yellowstone Park timber reserve, and is set apart by the proclamation of the President as a timber reserve under the authority of the act of March 3, 1891. The present boundaries of this timber reserve are marked on the map inclosed with black lines. I can not see, without some measure of protection, how anything particularly is gained by having the timber reserve included in the Yellowstone Park. If there were any protective measures proposed the accession to the park might be desirable for the purposes of administration, but as far as reservation is concerned the area is as much set apart now as it would be if included in the park. But the bill has a more particular object than that of adding the timber reserve to the Yellowstone Park; for, as you will see by the map, it is now proposed to cut in two the timber reserve, and while adding one-half of it to the park it throws open to settlement the other half and restores it to the public domain. This proposed change in the boundaries of the timber reserve is denoted on the map by the green lines. The reserve is cut in two in that extent of territory to the east of the park, and is almost divided on the south by throwing open a considerable area adjoining the Snake River and constituting the southwestern corner of the timber reserve. You will thus see that in substance nothing is gained and much lost. As far as the strip between the western park line and the boundary of Idaho is concerned all hands, I believe, are agreed that it should be given to Idaho, so as to make the western boundary of the park the same as the eastern boundary of Idaho.

We have already adverted to what is proposed to be taken away from the park on the north, and in addition to the objections under that head already presented, I would state that it is proposed to make the boundary line of Montana the same on the north as the boundary line of the park. This would recede a strip which the authorities of the park think most important to retain, in order that the settlements should not be brought any nearer to some of the most prominent and interesting features of the park. On this point I refer you to the earnest discussion in the current report of the superintendent of the park. In regard to the larger area north of the Yellowstone River, which it is proposed to segregate, it may be worthy of attention that it constitutes the most important if not the only wintering place for the great herds of elk now protected in the park, and should the segregation be made it would result in the large destruction of these animals, which the Government has done so much to protect. The northern segregation proposed is indicated on the map by the green line. I sincerely hope that the boundaries as proposed in the bill before your committee will not be adopted. I am opposed either to a railroad in the park or a cession of land within the park for railroad purposes, and think that the highest interests demand that the park should be preserved in its integrity, except as I have indicated.

Yours, truly,

W. HALLETT PHILLIPS.

Hon. CHARLES J. FAULKNER,
Chairman of the Senate Committee on Territories.

I cordially concur in these views of Mr. Phillips and will appear with him before your committee if you so desire.

Very respectfully,

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 157.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 19, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on the District of Columbia and ordered to be printed.

The VICE-PRESIDENT presented the following

FINDING OF FACTS BY THE COURT OF CLAIMS IN THE CASE OF JOHN A. FAIRFAX v. THE UNITED STATES.

COURT OF CLAIMS, CLERK'S OFFICE,
Washington, April 18, 1894.

SIR: Pursuant to the order of the court I transmit herewith a certified copy of the findings of the court, filed April 9, 1894, in the aforesaid cause, which case was referred to this court by the Committee on the District of Columbia of the U. S. Senate, under the act of March 3, 1883.

I am, very respectfully, yours, etc.,

JOHN RANDOLPH,
Assistant Clerk Court of Claims.

Hon. ADLAI E. STEVENSON,
President of the Senate.

[Court of Claims. No. 2560, Congressional. John A. Fairfax v. The United States.]

STATEMENT OF CASE.

The claim in the above-entitled case was transmitted to the court by the Committee on the District of Columbia of the Senate of the United States on the 12th of March, 1888.

The case was brought to a hearing on its merits on the 28th day of February, 1894.

Chaney and Rannells, esqs., appeared for claimant, and the Attorney-General, by Charles W. Russell, esq., his assistant, and under his direction, appeared for the defense and protection of the United States.

The court, upon the evidence and after considering the briefs and arguments of counsel on both sides, makes the following

FINDINGS OF FACT:

John A. Fairfax is a citizen of the United States, residing in the city of Washington, and has always yielded true allegiance to the United States.

II.

One Henry Schrieder had a contract in 1872 and 1873 to grade and build the Columbia turnpike, in the District of Columbia, under the direction and at the instance of the board of public works of said District.

III.

At the instance of said Schrieder the claimant boarded and lodged the laborers of said contractor while engaged at said work, the account amounting to $447. And the said Schrieder agreed to pay the claimant therefor, and failed to pay him said amount or any part thereof.

IV.

Under said contractor on said work the claimant himself did eleven days hauling with his teams at $5 per day, and furnished 10 barrels of lime, of the value of $10, on said work, for which the said contractor promised to pay claimant out of the money he got on said contract, but did not pay him, and the same remains unpaid ($65).

V.

The claimant presented his said accounts to the board of public works before said Schrieder was paid in full and when there was on hand more than $2,000 due said Schreider on said contract, and officers of the board of public works assured the claimant that if he filed his accounts against Schreider, he would be paid by the board out of said money, but did not finally do so, and the same remains unpaid.

VI.

Claimant duly filed his said account in the Treasury Department, for settlement, on 29th of November, 1878, but the same was disallowed by the First Comptroller because he did not consider board and lodging labor within the meaning of the act; but why his claim for his own labor and for that of the teams and for the lime furnished was not paid, is not disclosed.

VII.

A balance of $32,358.58 of the appropriation made by the act of June 20, 1878 (20 Stat. L., p. 209), was covered into the Treasury and not expended to pay laborers under said act.

VIII.

There is due the claimant, on the account aforesaid, the sum of $502; and it does not appear that payment of the whole or any part thereof has ever been made to the claimant, or to anyone for him, by any person, either on behalf of the contractor or the Government.

BY THE COURT.

Filed April 9, 1894.
A true copy.
Test this 18th day of April, 1894.
[SEAL.]

JOHN RANDOLPH,
Assistant Clerk Court of Claims.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 158.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 20, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Finance and ordered to be printed.

Mr. GORDON submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on Finance be instructed to report, at the earliest day practicable, with such provisions as said committee may approve, a bill to repeal the law and all amendments thereto imposing a tax upon the issues of State banks.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 159.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 20, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Rules and ordered to be printed.

Mr. GRAY presented the following

AMENDMENT

Intended to be proposed to Rule XIX of the Rules of the Senate:

Fourth. No Senator shall read a speech, nor shall he read from any book or paper except it may be to quote an authority or illustrate a point or argument which he is making, without unanimous consent.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 160.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 23, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. ALDRICH presented the following

REPORT OF HEARING OF WAGE-EARNING WOMEN BEFORE SENATORS JUSTIN S. MORRILL, JOHN SHERMAN, WILLIAM B. ALLISON, AND NELSON W. ALDRICH, MINORITY MEMBERS, FINANCE COMMITTEE, U. S. SENATE, MARCH 29, 1894.

There were present also Senator JOSEPH R. HAWLEY, of Connecticut, and Senators GEORGE F. HOAR and HENRY CABOT LODGE, of Massachusetts, and others.

Mrs. J. ELLEN FOSTER, of Iowa, with 16 wage-earning women of Massachusetts and Rhode Island, appeared (as above stated), and presented the following memorial, petition, and testimony:

MEMORIAL.

Washington, D. C., March 29, 1894.

Senators JUSTIN S. MORRILL,
JOHN SHERMAN,
WILLIAM B. ALLISON,
NELSON W. ALDRICH,
Minority Members, Finance Committee, U. S. Senate:

We, your petitioners, respectfully state that we came to the city of Washington two days ago for the purpose of showing to the Finance Committee of the U. S. Senate the causes and the reasons which impel us to protest against the enactment of the Wilson bill, now being considered.

We presented our written request in person to the Hon. Daniel W. Voorhees, chairman of the committee, asking a hearing before the committee, a copy of which is hereinafter inserted. He declined to hear us because of the committee rule, made some time ago.

We therefore now come to you, minority members of this committee, and most respectfully ask that we may present our cause to you, and through you to the U. S. Senate.

The interests we represent are great; the welfare of 2,000,000 wage-earning women, and the comfort of multitudes of homes are threatened by this proposed change in the American industrial system.

We await your reply.

Respectfully,

J. ELLEN FOSTER,
For herself and other petitioners.

PETITION.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *March 28, 1894.*

Senator DANIEL W. VOORHEES,
Chairman Subcommittee Finance Committee, U. S. Senate.

Whereas by the enactment of the Wilson bill, now being considered by the U. S. Senate, the wages of mill and factory operatives will be essentially lowered and general comfort and prosperity materially reduced;

Therefore, we women and women wage-earners respectfully ask to be heard by your honorable committee, that we may have an opportunity to show wherein the passage of this bill will bring great hardship to more than 2,000,000 wage-earning women, and those dependent upon them, and great distress to multitudes of others.

Direct representation not being granted to women, we make this special request. The right of petition is our only recourse. With this we come to you.

Please indicate at an early hour to-day or to-morrow, and the place where, at your pleasure, such hearing may be had.

Respectfully,

J. ELLEN FOSTER, Iowa.
HELEN V. BOSWELL, N. Y.
HARRIET BRANCH, woolen-sewer, East Greenwich, R. I.
ANNIE M. DEVRIAUX, jeweler, Providence, R. I.
MARY J. RYAN, cotton-weaver, Woonsocket, R. I.
MINNIE SPEARIN, cotton inspector, Manville, R. I.
HANNAH E. RYAN, spinner, New Bedford, Mass.
EMILY S. YOUNG, jeweler, Providence, R. I.
MARGARET WRIGHT, carpet-setter, Boston, Mass.
ELIZABETH TYLER, carpet-weaver, Boston, Mass.
FLORENCE BRIGGS, cotton-weaver, Anthony, R. I.
MARY BROOKS, cotton-weaver, Fitchburg, Mass.
ANGES POHLMAN, cotton-weaver, Fitchburg, Mass.
MARTHA HAWORTH, cotton-weaver, New Bedford, Mass.
ALICE JUKES, net and twine, Cambridge, Mass.
AMY LEES, cotton-weaver, New Bedford, Mass.
EDITH WOLSTENCRAFT, cotton-weaver, Taunton, Mass.
HATTIE FREEMAN, worsted-sewer, Woonsocket, R. I.

Remarks of Mrs. J. Ellen Foster.

SENATORS: As stated in the memorial and petition already presented, over 2,000,000 of wage-earning women in this country are suffering and will suffer from the industrial revolution proposed by the Wilson bill.

It is not always remembered by those who know the facts, how large a proportion of the wage-earners of the country are women. The interests of women which will be affected by this bill have been only incidentally considered during the pendency of this measure.

In every representation of industrial life the hoary fiction appears in dim or bold outline, that only men are breadwinners; that women are protected from the contest for material support by the strong arms and stout hearts of fathers, brothers, husbands, sons, and that the exceptions to this rule are few or unnecessary.

The women here—with the exception of 2 or 3—not only support themselves, but provide food, raiment, and shelter for aged parents, younger brothers and sisters, and for their own children.

The United States census gives the actual number of wage earning women in this country as 2,647,157. The occupations are divided into four classes: First, agriculture; second, professional and personal services; third, trade and transportation; fourth, manufactures, mechanical and mining industries.

This does not include the many women who work at home, or those whose foolish pride leads them to conceal their trades and places of work.

No one of these interests is independent of the others. If one is weakened, all suffer. When the factory "shuts down" the woman operative has no "pay-day envelope" from which to take money for holiday or everyday clothes and to pay her board, or, if she be a home-keeper, her rent and grocery bill.

When the shopkeeper's receipts are thus depleted he cuts down the wages of the girl who stands behind the counter, or tells her he needs her no longer; the butcher and the baker do the same; the dressmaker, the milliner, the plain sewer, or the sewing-machine operative, women bookkeepers, stenographers, and typewriters, all, are in less demand and reduce their expenses to the limit of actual necessity. Farm women must sell their butter and eggs and other produce, if at all, at lower price. Girls, boys, men, and women are thus daily added to the army of the unemployed, to be supported by those who still exist on lowered wages from the paralyzed industries, which, a year and a half ago, were in healthy and happy activity, or the famishing host must be humiliated and fed at charity soup houses.

The interdependence of industrial life is thus shocked at every point, and none who are a part of its vital energies can escape. Only two classes of people are unaffected by the industrial life of the nation: These are criminals who live by plunder and personal assault, and the dependent classes in public and private institutions. This is why, out of the distress of the present and for fear of the future, these women have come to Washington to give their testimony and to make their personal protest against the passage of the Wilson bill.

They are Americans, though not all born under the stars and stripes. They are not of the dregs of Old World civilization. They do not ask charity. They are self-respecting workers. The present administration, through the Chief Executive, has said that "wages must find their level," and Congressman Black, of Illinois, voicing this sentiment, said on the floor of the House of Representatives, when the Wilson bill was before that body, that he would have "wages have their natural play all over the world."

Against this "play of wages," these women protest. They require and demand higher wages than are paid elsewhere in the world, because of the larger life which American institutions have given to women as well as men. The elevation of labor which is both the cause and the result of political liberty, has elevated women. Labor can not be elevated, except through good wages, and wages which increase as productive wealth is increased.

In the degradation of labor women are crowded to the wall first. The "play of wages all over the world" means that the labor of these hard-working, intelligent, self-respecting women, who are bearing their full share of the country's work, and are daily adding to its wealth,

shall be put in competition with the work of the beast-of-burden women of the Old World.

The rate of wages paid determines the respect in which labor is held; the respect in which labor is held is a never-failing index of woman's position in the social order. A nation may always be rated by the character of its women. If by the adoption of free trade, the labor of women and of men is degraded, this Republic will not long hold its proud place among the nations.

Also, we wish to show that the high prices paid wage earners has not increased the price of the goods manufactured. On the contrary, manufactured goods, made by the women here present before you, have steadily decreased in price; note, especially, carpets and textile fabrics. A friend said to me a while since, when I spoke of the distressing conditions among certain carpet weavers in New York City who had been out of work for many weeks, "Well, more people use carpets than make carpets; if wages are cut down we will get our carpets cheaper."

In the face of this plausible supposition we set the fact that carpets were never so cheap as now. How it is possible that high wages do not increase the price of goods is called the "tariff riddle." But the riddle can be easily solved by the facts of industrial history. High wages make a great army of consumers; the use of machinery so increases production that this demand may be supplied and prices kept down while wages are kept up.

Those who will take the trouble to study the question will soon see the philosophy which produces this result—this ripe fruit of American economics. We ask those who are too indolent or preoccupied to look deeper than the surface of things to hear the testimony of these women as it will be presented to the Senate by the honorable members of this committee, who have, in justice to the claims of women workers, granted this hearing.

Some of these women have worked in other countries. They know the wages paid there, and the discomforts and hardships which afflict the industrial classes. They love the lands where they were born; the Fatherland is still the home land. Scotland and England are still "bonnie" and "merry," but for all that, they would not return to the wages paid and the conditions of living there. They say with a touching eloquence, to me more convincing than free-trade pleas based on systems of Old World economics, "it is far better for women here."

It is this human side, this home side of industrial economics, which we present by these witnesses.

The American workman or workwoman is not a mere human machine, valuable in proportion as wages—the fuel which generates the force which runs the machine—are reduced; he or she is a consumer of the wealth produced; the elevation of the working classes creates demand and furnishes supply.

The difference in home comforts and social conditions of producers here and in any other country is sometimes illustrated by the phraseology of legislation and of philanthropic movements.

I have heard statesmen in the British House of Commons argue, and humanitarians in Exeter Hall, London, plead for better "housings for the poor." Under the dome of this Capitol, in the Senate chamber, over which the stars and stripes wave, and in our great auditoriums our statesmen and publicists demand, not "housings for the poor," but homes for the people.

Free-trade theories are built on the former, the American protective tariff system builds and defends the latter.

These women come from the homes of the people. I ask you to hear their testimony.

(In answer to a question of Senator Aldrich, as to how these women came to Washington, Mrs. Foster stated)—

In 1888, when the McKinley bill was pending, I brought some women to Washington to testify about work and wages; they were heard by the Senate Finance Committee; the result was good. I had no idea then that it would ever be proposed by the Congress of the United States to bring the wages of American laborers to Old World levels.

The attempt has, however, been made and with disastrous results. I have seen much of the suffering, among women, thus caused. I was three months of last winter in New York City among its wage earners. I saw mothers, with babies in their arms, and little children about them in a starving condition, because husbands and fathers had no work; young girls defenseless, without work and without money, in winter in a great city, exposed to the temptations which that means; these were the scenes which I daily witnessed and which impelled me to do what I could to bring the condition of working women to the consideration of the United States Senate.

For this purpose I went to Massachusetts and Rhode Island, and through the courtesy of superintendents of rooms and foremen of departments in factories, I was allowed to see the women at their work. They came to me in their work clothes with the dust of the loom upon them. I told them that I thought their testimony would help defeat the Wilson bill; that I was president of the Woman's Republican Association of the United States, a society for the education of women in the affairs of Government, and for the defense of woman's work and wages; I told them I would, for the society, take them to Washington and bring them back to their homes again.

They asked, "What shall we say?" I answered, "Just tell the Senators the way things are." To their plea that they could not make speeches, I replied, "You will not have to make speeches; simply tell the conditions of work and wages which you know to be true."

These women feel that they are standing, not for themselves only, but for a multitude of wage earners behind them. Some were chosen by their companions. This is why and how they have come.

TESTIMONY.

Mrs. Harriet Branch, East Greenwich, R. I., woolen sewer.

Q. Mrs. Branch, what is your employment?—A. I am a woolen sewer.

Q. Where do you work?—A. I have had no work for the last three weeks, but I have not lost my situation. I expect to go back as soon as the work increases. The mill has not stopped altogether.

Q. How long have you been a woolen sewer?—A. I have worked in the Phœnix woolen mill for ten years.

Q. What wages did you receive at the mill?—A. My pay was $9 and $10 a week. I now earn $3, and sometimes $1.90 per week in plain sewing; some weeks not anything.

Q. Do you know the cause of the reduction at the mill?—A. I do not; the only thing I know is that the reduction is so I have not got work. If I have no work I can not earn the money. The girls in our mill feel terribly about the reduction. There are twenty-five or thirty in my room alone that are supporting the mother, father or children.

Of course, when they get only $4 a week, you can tell yourself how far $4 a week will go with a family of two or three.

Q. (Senator ALDRICH.) Have you any family dependent on you for support?—A. I support myself and my daughter, 14 years old. She does not work in the mill; she goes to school. All I have is what I make for myself and her.

Q. Were you born in this country?—A. I was born in Scotland.

Q. (Senator ALLISON.) How do you get on in this country as compared with the old country?—A. In the old country we were kept down by not having the money to spend. Of course in this country we have much better advantage of getting along and being one with the people. In the old country we had not that. As long as we appear as ladies in this country we can be ladies; but in the old country it is different. Here women have a dignity and they do not like to go elsewhere. In the old country the servant girls are considered above the mill hands. There the working class are a certain class, and they are kept distinct.

Miss Florence Briggs, Anthony, R. I., cotton weaver.

Q. At what do you work?—A. I make cotton cloths; I am a weaver.

Q. How long have you done this kind of work?—A I have worked twelve years in the place where I am now.

Q. What wages do you make?—A. Only $6.50 or $7 now, where before the cut down I got $8 and over.

Q. Do you work by the day or by piecework?—A. By piecework.

Q. When were your wages cut down?—A. A short time ago; I think it was in January. The works have not been stopped; they have been running full time, but they talk now of stopping if this Wilson bill is passed.

Q. Are any of your family dependent on you for support?—A. I help take care of my mother and myself. Our small farm is the only other means of support.

Mrs. Mary Brooks, Fitchburg, Mass., cotton weaver.

Q. Where do you live?—A. Fitchburg, Mass.

Q. What do you do?—A. I am a cotton weaver.

Q. How long have you been in this country?—A. I have only been in this country three years. I came from Glasgow. There I worked at weaving cotton, just the same work as I do here.

Q. What were your wages there and here?—A. I have a dollar here for a shilling at home for the same kind of work.

Q. (Senator ALDRICH.) How did you live in Glasgow as compared with Fitchburg?—A. We do not live over there the same as we do here. Smaller rooms, smaller houses, not the same comforts. For two years I made $10 a week here, and since the cut-down $7.50 a week. The cut-down came last fall. I do not know why. The mills stopped for two months, shut down and then put down prices, besides.

Q. (Senator ALLISON.) Do you support any one besides yourself?—A. I have 2 little boys to care for, beside myself; the youngest one 3, the oldest one 5. I pay for their keep out of the wages I make. I could not do this there. That is the reason I am here: my mother came along with me.

Q. (Senator ALLISON.) What did you state about the wages in Scotland?—A. The wages there were about a shilling, as compared with a

dollar here. That was the ordinary pay there. I could save nothing at home; that was by the piece; we only ran 2 looms at home.

Q. (Senator ALDRICH.) Do you work harder here than at home?—A. No; I would rather run 6 looms here than 3 at home; they are heavy looms, they are different kinds of looms altogether. I could do 4 looms here better than 2 at home.

Q. (Senator ALDRICH.) Do you know about the cost of living in Glasgow?—A. Yes; I kept house in Glasgow and ran my own household; there were 2 in the family. I had 1 room and kitchen. We paid 12½ shillings a month for rent; $10 a month for rent here. We have 6 rooms here for the $10.

Q. (Senator ALLISON.) How about the furniture?—A. The furniture was respectable, but I could not get any luxuries there; had to confine ourselves to food and necessaries of clothing.

Q. (Senator ALDRICH.) Could you have any musical instruments?—A. No; we could not have any musical instruments or spend anything *out of the bare necessaries of life.* I lived there in the same way as the others; there was as much labor over there in working as here.

Q. Is it any better here?—A. Yes, indeed; the first nine months I was here I saved $150, besides keeping myself and children. Over there I could not save enough to bring me to this country without the help of my mother. If I had not had my mother to help me I do not believe I would ever have gotten here.

Miss Hattie Freeman, Woonsocket, R. I., worsted sewer.

Q. Where do you live?—A. Woonsocket, R. I.

Q. What do you do?—A. I work in the Harris Woolen Company, Rhode Island. I am a worsted sewer.

Q. What pay do you get?—A. I make $7.50 a week. It is day work. We have short time but no reduction in price. The mill had a reduction but not the sewers. Beside short time, they have been stopped and then they started again, but they expect another reduction of 20 per cent; that is what they had before. The sewers get the most day pay; the weavers make the most by the piecework.

Q. Do you support anyone beside yourself?—A. I take care of my mother, and we can live comfortably on what I make. I pay $9 per month rent for six rooms, for just me and mother.

Mrs. Amy Lees, New Bedford, Mass., cotton-weaver.

Q. What do you do?—A. I am a cotton-weaver.

Q. Where have you worked?—A. In this country and in Lancashire, England. I have worked seven years in this country.

Q. What was your pay there and what is it here?—A. Over there I made about 15 and 16 shillings a week off three looms. Here $8.50 off seven looms.

Q. (Senator ALDRICH.) Is the work harder here?—A. The work here is a little harder, but not much. I worked in Blackburn, England. I live with my husband.

Q. (Senator ALLISON.) What about the cost of living there and here?—A. It costs more to live here than there, because we have better and more things to eat here than there.

Q. Why?—A. We could not afford them in England.

Q. Would you like to go back to England to live?—A. No; I would sooner be in this country.

Alice Jukes, Cambridge, Mass., net and twine maker.

Q. In what industry are you engaged?—A. I have been fifteen years with the American Knitting and Twine Company. I work on a knitting machine. The work is piecework.

Q. How much can you make in a week?—A. Before the reduction I made $8 a week. I make $6.50 to $7 now. I am on full time but reduced wages, and expect more reduction if the Wilson bill goes through.

Q. In what branch of the business are you engaged?—A. I make gilling nets. They are made out of linen. There are a number made of cotton, but the greatest number, probably, is made of the linen flax.

Q. Have you ever worked in the old country?—A. I have worked in the old country, but not on the same work. In Birmingham I worked in Gillott's pen manufactory.

Q. (Senator ALLISON): Do you know the wages paid in England for work similar to that which you do here?—A. Yes; the pay over there is 6 shillings a week for the same work on the flax machine. Here we get $7 in place of 6 shillings.

Q. Were you able to live as well on what you received there?—A. No, indeed. You can exist on 6 shillings a week, but you can not live on it, because it is not living. We survive, that is all. It is the custom of the country. But of course you do not get any chance of becoming any better.

Q. Do you support anyone beside yourself?—A. I have my mother to take care of. I help to take care of her. My sister works in the same mill, and with her help we keep home.

Q. Have you been able to save anything?—A. Yes; I have been able to save since I have been in this business, and we have built a house with the money we have got. But with another reduction, of course, we could not save. We saved up $1,000 between us, and we paid that much on the house we built.

Q. Do you live in the house you built?—A. Yes; we live in our own house.

Mrs. Agnes Pohlman, Fitchburg, Mass., cotton-weaver.

Q. Mrs. Pohlman, what do you do and where are you from?—A. I am a cotton-weaver from Fitchburg, Mass., but I do not work there just now, because the mills are shut down; they have had a very hard time there since last summer—lots of suffering with no work. If the mill is shut down, all the business is shut down, everything is down. So we had very hard times since last summer, and we had lots of poor to help. It is just as bad there now. I could not get work, and that is the reason I am not working now.

Q. (Senator ALDRICH.) Is anyone dependent upon you?—A. Yes; my boy. He goes to school. I am able to take care of him when I get work.

Q. Are you from Germany?—A. Yes; I was born in Germany. I did not work very much there, because I was very young when I came from there.

Q. (Senator ALDRICH.) What about the manner of living there and here?—A. I know we could not live there as we live here, and if I had to go there and work I would not do it, because we can live higher here. I wish we could soon have our old good times again, so that people could get work and live like they used to do. There are a lot of women out of work in our place.

Miss Hannah E. Ryan, New Bedford, Mass., cotton-spinner.

Q. Miss Ryan, tell the Senators about your work.—A. I am a spinner in the New Bedford Cotton Manufacturers' Company. I have worked there thirteen years.

Q. Were you born in this country?—A. Was born in New Bedford.

Q. What are your wages?—A. My wages now are $5.50 a week. Two years ago I got over $6, but we were cut down in October, and they now speak of another cut down if the Wilson bill passes. If we do not kill the Wilson bill, it will kill us. The girls in the mill know if the bill passes we will be reduced again. We can not live on less than $5 a week.

Q. Have you anyone to support?—A. Yes; I have my mother and brother and sister to support. My brother works part of the time, but work is slack. In July it started with work for four days in the week.

Miss Minnie Spearin, Manville, R. I., cotton inspector.

Q. In what occupation are you engaged?—A. I am an inspector of cotton goods. I work by the week. I inspect the fine goods, such as you make muslin aprons out of, and see that they are perfect before they are sent away.

Q. What wages do you make?—A. I make the average wages. I had formerly $6.42 per week; now I make $5.92.

Q. Has there been a cut down in the mill where you work?—A. The wages were cut down last fall 10 per cent. The works have not kept on full time since. Last April there was a strike among the spinners, and they have never done so well since. We were raised 10 per cent two years ago this April and cut down last fall. I do not know the cause of the cut down.

Q. Are you supporting anyone beside yourself?—A. I support myself. I am not helping anyone.

Miss Annie M. Devereaux, Providence, R. I., Jeweler.

Q. What is your work, Miss Devereaux?—A. I am a chain-maker in the jewelry establishment of The Kent & Stanley Company, Providence.

Q. Do you work by the day or the piece?—A. I work by the piece. I average $9 a week, usually more; but I have been on short time a long while and do not make so much. The wages are the same, but it is short time. The loss is in short hours—same pay, but short hours.

Q. Do you know the cause of the short hours?—A. Because our business is dependent upon the general prosperity of other trades. The general depression has affected us. I live at home, and there is no one dependent on me.

Miss Emily S. Young, Providence, R. I., Jeweler.

Q. What is your work, Miss Young?—A. I am shipping clerk for the manufacturing jewelers, Potter & Buffington, Providence. I have worked there sixteen years, not in that department, but for that firm. My work is by the day or week.

Q. What do you receive per week?—A. I receive $10 a week.

Q. Is your business good at the present time?—A. In all the years that I have worked there I have not known them to work so short

hours as they are working now; never. Of course, now and then a day or job work, but the shop seems to be almost closed.

Q. (Senator ALDRICH.) Could you estimate the reduction?—A. At least 50 per cent from now and two years ago.

Q. Miss Young, are you dependent on yourself for support?—A. Yes, I am dependent on myself for support; my sister and I together support ourselves.

Miss Mary J. Ryan, Woonsocket, R. I., cotton-weaver.

Q. Miss Ryan, please state your business.—A. I am a cotton-weaver. I have worked twenty three years for the Social Manufacturing Company. I have always done weaving.

Q. What has been your average wages?—A. I averaged $10 a week until September, 1893. In October, $9 a week—$1.50 a day.

Q. Why did your wages fall from $10 to $9?—A. The depression in business, owing to the tariff question, caused the works to be stopped for two weeks, and for four months following the work was slack. They stopped last October. Then they ran on full time, but had a scarcity of work.

Q. (Senator ALDRICH). Explain what you mean by that?—A. I mean that you can run four or five or six looms, but if you have only two or three looms, you will be there and your time will be taken up, but you will not earn so much.

Q. Do you know why the work was slack during the time you have mentioned?—A. I was never told why the work was slack, but I learned through the press.

Q. (Senator ALDRICH): Have you been able to save anything from your wages. A. Yes, I have been able to save something in these years, but I have not saved anything for nine months. If this Wilson bill goes into effect, we suppose our wages to be reduced.

Q. Do you support any one beside yourself?—A. There is no one dependent on me alone. Two sisters and myself work together in the mill; we all work together and have everything that is required, with comfort. We work together in the mill, and all come together in the home.

Miss Edith Wolstencroft, Taunton, Mass., cotton weaver.

Q. Please state what kind of work you do?—A. I work at the Whittenton Manufacturing Company, on gingham weaving.

Q. What wages can you make?—A. I can make $8 on the average a week.

Q. Have you ever worked in any other country?—A. I was born in England. I worked in England. I worked on velvets at home at Oldham. I made from 16 to 18 shillings a week. I had 2 looms. I work two hours more now a week than I did at home. Fifty-eight hours now, fifty-six over there.

Q. (Senator ALDRICH.) What is the difference in the cost of living here and in England?—A. I think some things are cheaper at home and some more expensive. The clothing is a good deal heavier at home than it is here. The climate is so much different. It is damp, heavy, foggy weather there; of course it is clearer here.

Q. (Senator ALLISON.) How about the rent?—A. We have a tenement, 4 rooms for 2, and pay $7 a month. We had the same number of rooms in the old country, but it was not as comfortable; we

paid 5 shillings a week at home, that is, $1.25 a week. We had not the same conveniences at home as we have here.

Q. (Senator ALLISON.) Who do you support beside yourself?—A. I have my mother to keep. We are able to get on pretty well and keep house. I get on better in this country. I could not keep my mother at home. It is better living here; I would not go back again and work there.

Mrs. Martha Haworth, New Bedford, Mass., cotton-weaver.

Q. What is your work?—A. I am a weaver in a cotton-mill. I have been five years where I now work.

Q. What wages can you make?—A. I now average about $8.50; I made $10 and $11 in good times. It is not short time; it is short pay.

Q. Have you any one to care for but yourself?—A. I have one little girl dependent on me for support. She is 9 years old; she is in school. I keep house with the little girl.

Q. How do the wages you make here compare with those received for the same work in the old country?—A. I do not know the wages of those who had the same sort of work in the country I came from.

Mrs. Elizabeth Tyler, Boston, Mass., carpet-weaver.

Q. Mrs. Tyler, please tell the committee where you work.—A. I work at the Roxbury Carpet Mills. It was twenty-one years last November since I began there.

Q. What wages do you get?—A. I average my wages for 1892 and 1893 up to the last of August at $8 and some odd cents. Since that time the average pay, up to the present time, has been about $3.50; I formerly made something over $8 a week. I work by the piece.

Q. What was the cause of this difference?—A. The mill has been closed down twice; the first time 6 weeks, the last time 4. There was a 10 per cent reduction on the 9th of October.

Q. (Senator ALDRICH.) Have you always worked in this country?—A. I was born in England. I worked there for the John Bright's concern.

Q. (Senator ALDRICH.) How do wages paid there compare with wages paid here?—A. They paid a penny a yard, which would be equal to 2 cents; whereas our former price here was 3½ cents for weaving a yard. It is now 10 per cent less.

Q. (Senator ALDRICH.) What do you know about the conditions of living in the two countries?—A. We could not live in this country on the wages paid in England. I have conversed with several that have come from England, and have worked there, and they are unanimous in saying that they do not want to go back to the old country to work. It costs a girl $5 a week for board and lodging, and then there are the incidental expenses. When we have work we can save a little; we can try and have a little laid by for the future. If they want to ruin this country let them pass a free-trade bill. If the protection and the tariff are taken off the carpet industry, I say carpet industry, because I know more about that industry than any other, the manufacturer here will not be able to compete with the foreign manufacturer, and wages of course will have to come down; it will be impossible for the people in Boston to live on the wages that will be paid; they can not do it; their living is too high. We want to do all we can to defeat the Wilson bill.

Miss Margaret Wright, Boston, Mass., carpet setter.

Q. Miss Wright, what is your avocation?—A. I work in the setting room of the Roxbury Carpet Works. I have worked twenty years in that one place. I am a carpet setter.

Q. Please explain your work?—A. I make the patterns such as are in the carpet on this floor. Every day I learn some new pattern as a general thing. It is very difficult and brain work. I have got to have them very perfect. If I do not, I have got to pull it back and do it over. I get no pay for that. If there is one thread out of place, I am called to the finishing room and sometimes fined fifty cents, which does not occur often. In all the twenty years I have been fined only twice. It is very nice work and I can earn very good pay. Up to within a year or two ago, i. e., 1892, I could earn $2 a day and more. I call the average $2 a day. I worked very hard. I worked harder than the average run of girls. There are a few who can earn that pay regularly. Two girls work together on what are called frames; twenty-three lines underneath and twenty-three above. It is Brussels tapestry I work at. I form these flowers that are on the pattern. It is something that can hardly be made plain to you unless you see it. I work with both hands all the time, setting the patterns. My eyes have got to be on them. If I take them off and let my hands stay still, I do not earn any money; so I have to work very hard.

Q. Have you had steady work?—A. We shut down from last August to the last of October, going back to 10 per cent reduction. If this Wilson bill goes into effect it means further reduction for us and it means not steady work, which we have not had since last April.

Q. Where do you live, Miss Wright?—A. I live about 4 miles out from the works. I have got to take the steam cars and then the electric cars. It costs 22 cents in the winter and 16 cents in the summer. I live at home. I am one of the fortunate ones that has no one dependent upon me.

Q. (Senator ALDRICH). Are you a native of this country?—A. I am not a native of this country. I was born in Scotland. I never worked in Scotland. I was nothing but a very little girl when I came to Boston. I was left to amuse myself in the daytime, and I remember wondering where all the girls came from at night. In Scotland there is a feeling against factory girls and mill hands. If I had lived there I think I never should have worked in a mill. It is different here; and I told my father that I did not know but what I would like to get work. He said: "Perhaps you would like to get a job at dressmaking." He took me visiting and I met a young lady who worked in the setting room and I asked her to get me work. The remark I made to my father was: "I do not care if I do work in a factory, because nobody knows me here;" but I have never regretted that I went to work in a factory. A lady is a lady anywhere here, whether her pocketbook is full or not; it is not the same on the other side; you have got to have money, and your people have to have a high standing in society before you can get into it.

I do not only speak for myself, but for all the girls who work in the department with me. I happen to be the fortunate one who was chosen by the girls in my department to come here. No one of the company had anything to do with it. I think if this bill goes into effect it will lower our wages and bring us to the standard of old-country people. It is degrading the working people. In the department with me there are 84 girls; a great many with invalid mothers, brothers, and

sisters all dependent upon them. I can say that in Roxbury in September, and especially during November and December, the suffering was something terrible. There are some seven or eight hundred people dependent on that Roxbury mill; not only the people who work there but also the people who keep stores. We hope the bill will not pass.

Mrs. J. ELLEN FOSTER:

SENATORS: All the women have given their testimony. It has been unstudied, direct, sincere. By their language, decorum, intelligence, and evident understanding of their work they have shown you what the American system of economics can do and does do for the average working woman and for the home she lives in.

We thank God for the healthful and happy conditions which have existed in this country. We pray that they may soon be restored.

We thank you, Senators, for your patient hearing. We knew we had a right to come, and as citizens of the Republic, a right to be heard; but we are not unmindful of the consideration which you—Republican minority members of the committee—have shown us, which has made our task less difficult.

We realize that we have been honored by the close attention of the elder members of this committee and of the Senate—Senators Morrill and Sherman—and by the discriminating questions of Senators Allison and Aldrich.

Again we thank you.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 161.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 23, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on the District of Columbia and ordered to be printed.

Mr. PROCTOR presented the following

MEMORIAL OF OWNERS OF PROPERTY ON L STREET IN OPPOSITION TO SENATE BILL 1630 AND HOUSE BILL 6596.*

To the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States in Congress assembled:

Your petitioners respectfully represent to your honorable body:

1. That they are citizens of the United States, residing in the city of Washington and District of Columbia, and that they are owners of houses and lots fronting on L street NW., in the said city.

2. That bills have been introduced in the Senate (S. 1630) and House (H. R. 6596) authorizing the Belt Railway Company to extend its tracks and run its cars from New York avenue and L street westerly along L street, Eleventh street, and L street to Connecticut avenue; also easterly from L and Fifth streets NW. on L street to Eighth street east

3. That on the 5th of April your petitioners and others made application for a hearing before the House Committee on the District of Columbia, and one of your petitioners received notice by mail the next day (April 6) about 9 o'clock a. m. that a hearing would be granted at 10:30 that same morning. Owing to the shortness of the interval (one hour and a half) it was impossible for the persons who were to appear and speak for your petitioners to be notified and to be present at the time designated. An application for a postponement and for a hearing on one or two days' notice received no attention. In fact, the House committee's report in favor of the bill (Report No. 676) is dated the same day (April 6th) on which your petitioners were invited to be present, and it seems that the report must have been prepared previous to the invitation. It is understood that quite a number of members of the committee were not present when the report was authorized, although the bill deals with such important interests of property and principles of legislation.

Your petitioners had no opportunity to appear before the District Commissioners, upon whose recommendation it was that the proposed cross-town route, as designated in an earlier bill (H. R. 5933), was changed to L street from M street, along which latter street the earlier bill provided that the company was to lay its tracks from Fourth to Twenty-sixth streets, NW.

4. Your petitioners respectfully represent that the bills in question have not been put upon their passage in response to any demand from

* The references in this petition are to House bill No. 6596.

the residents of the streets in the northwest which it is proposed to surrender to the said company for its railway. This is clear from the fact that the residents and owners of lots on the various cross streets from R to L have protested against any such invasion of the quiet and repose of this residential part of the city. This opposition has been well expressed by the Hon. George F. Edmunds in his letter to the District Commissioners which has been published in the newspapers and a copy of which is annexed to this petition. Capitalists and speculators naturally wish to develop and extend the enterprises in which they are pecuniarily interested, but Congress should not allow them to do this at the expense of those citizens who have spent their means in improving their property and establishing their homes, as your petitioners have done, with regard to conditions then and now existing, which the proposed legislation would destroy without compensation. When the time comes for a cross-town railway in the northwest, it should be laid out on the most direct and central available route, and provision should be made for compensation to those citizens whose property will be damaged, so that the burden as well as the benefit of a great public convenience shall be distributed as equally as may be. Such a franchise honestly and efficiently administered would be of great value, and it should be sold to the highest responsible bidder, or granted on such conditions of compensation in damages and of thoroughness of construction, equipment, and service as might reasonably be demanded and could undoubtedly be secured.

5. L street is only 32 feet wide from curb to curb. Allowing 16 feet for double tracks and projection of the cars, there would only be 8 feet available on each side of the railway. The houses have been built with reference to the parking, and if that were taken into the street, as the bill seems to contemplate, all the trees would have to be cut down and the eligibility and value of the residences would be greatly impaired. The proposed legislation makes no provision for obtaining the consent of abutting owners or compensating them for damages, although in many of the States the rights of such owners (against profit-seeking capitalists and speculators) are guarded by constitutional and statutory provisions.

There is a large distributing water main on L street which would be under the railway and could not be reached in case of necessity without impeding the traffic and causing great expense, inconvenience, and danger. The objections to building and operating a railway over this main are clearly and forcibly stated in a letter from Mr. E. J. Stellwagen to the District Commissioners, a copy of which we beg to annex to this petition. There is also in this street at a depth of about 2 feet a smaller surface pipe which supplies the immediate vicinity with water, and this, with all its connections, would need to be relaid at a greater depth.

In preparing the foundations for a railway to be run by cable or electricity, the street would be torn up, and the work of changing the water pipes and constructing the road would take a long time and would expose the abutting owners and their families to serious inconveniences and unsanitary conditions.

6. Your petitioners respectfully invite the attention of your honorable body to some peculiar features of the proposed legislation:

(*a*) The bill does not provide expressly for any particular kind of railway, cable or electric, but, referring to those streets "where there are, or may be any mains, fixtures, or other apparatus pertaining to

the Washington aqueduct," the bill provides (section 3, lines 20–23), that——

No *steam* cars, locomotives, or passenger or other cars for *steam* railroads shall ever run on the tracks of said company *over any such main, fixture, or apparatus.*

The fifth section of the bill provides——

That such extension of said railroads shall be constructed on such grade and in *such manner* as shall be approved by the Commissioners of the District of Columbia.

As this delegation of authority is unqualified by any limitation or description of the kinds of railway which the Commissioners may approve, the bill might repeal the discrimination against the trolley or overhead system which is contained in the act of March 2, 1889. Of course, we do not mean that the Commissioners may not safely be trusted, but the point we make is that restrictions already prescribed by Congress should not be avoided by any provision or implication in the pending bill unless Congress now desires to open a door which it has shut.

The sixth section provides—

That it shall be lawful for said railway company, its successors, or assigns, to make all needful and convenient trenches and excavations in any of the streets or places where said company may have the right to construct and operate its road, and place in such trenches and excavations all needful and convenient devices and machinery for operating said railroad in the *same manner* and by the *means* aforesaid.

But there is no other description of the system or motive power in the bill—that is of the "manner" or "means" of operating the railway —than that contained in the fifth section quoted above.

(*b*) The third section provides:

That the construction of said railroad on any street where there are or may be any mains, fixtures, or other apparatus pertaining to the Washington Aqueduct shall be subject to such conditions as may be approved by the Secretary of War, which conditions must be obtained from the Secretary and accepted in writing by said company before commencing any work on such street.

But the bill fixes no time within which the company may or must make any such application to the Secretary of War. The same section provides that the company before commencing work on such street shall deposit with the Treasurer of the United States, to the credit of the Washington Aqueduct, such sum as the *Secretary of War* may consider necessary to defray expenses that may be incurred by the United States in connection with the work of construction of said railroad on such street, but fixes no time within which such deposit may or must be made. But the bill does provide in the same section that—

Whatever shall remain of said deposits at the end of one year after the completion of such railroad in such street shall be returned to said company on the order of the *Secretary of War* with an account of their disbursement in detail.

The bill also provides (section 3, lines 44 46)—

That disbursement of said deposits shall, except in case of emergency, be made on order of the *Secretary of War.*

And at the close of the same section (lines 46 50), no time having been limited for obtaining "conditions" from the Secretary of War or making such "deposits" as he may designate, the additional franchises which the bill grants to the company are committed to the absolute control of that officer in the following extraordinary terms:

The exercise of the rights by this act conferred are to terminate at the *pleasure* of the *Secretary of War* in case of persistent neglect by said company, or by its successors, to make deposits or to comply with any of the conditions, requirements, and regulations aforesaid.

Why should not the legislature which grants these additional franchises itself prescribe some reasonable period within which the conditions precedent shall be performed? Why leave it to the "pleasure" of the Secretary of War to decide what may constitute "persistent neglect by the said company?" And why hold such valuable privileges intact for the benefit of this dog in the manger during the vague and indefinite period which depends so entirely on the "pleasure" of the Secretary of War?

(*c*) The proposed legislation provides that the Belt Railway Company shall pay the expenses of sinking and relaying the water mains, so that the city shall suffer no loss, but makes no provision for paying the expenses of making such alterations in the house connections as the changes in the mains may require. Why should this burden be put upon the abutting owners in addition to all the other injuries they would suffer?

(*d*) The seventh section of the bill provides that whenever Congress shall authorize the widening of the roadway of any street which may be occupied by the company half of the cost of such widening shall be charged to the company and collected from it in the manner prescribed in section five of the act entitled "An act providing a permanent form of government for the District of Columbia," approved June 11, 1878. But the inefficiency of this provision has been conspicuously illustrated by the inability of the District to collect what it has expended for the Metropolitan company, amounting now to about $150,000. The other half of the cost of widening would fall, at least partially, upon the very owners whose property would be injured by the railway that would make the widening necessary.

The various streets that have been suggested at one time and another for a cross-town line in the northwest make it clear that L street is too far south, and should not be chosen for such a purpose, irrespective of what seems to your petitioners the insuperable obstacle presented by the water main, the safety of which is of such vital concern to the city.

In view of the foregoing, and other reasons which will appear to your honorable body on a careful scrutiny of the proposed legislation and due consideration of the whole subject, your petitioners trust that the pending bill may not become a law, and that none of the additional tracks or roadbed of the Belt Railway Company may, in any event, be constructed on L street.

And your petitioners will ever pray.

H. CLAY STEWART,
Corner L and Eleventh streets.
L. P. GRAHAM,
1513, 1633, 1635 L street NW.
H. A. WILLARD,
1322 and 1324 L street.
H. K. WILLARD,
1326 L street.
JAMES M. GREEN,
1301, 1302, 1304, 1306, 1308, 1309, 1329, 1331, 1333 L street.
WM. H. TRESCOT,
1418 L street.

On behalf of themselves and over seventy protesting owners.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *April 19, 1894.*

[From the Washington Star.]

AGAINST USING L STREET.—MR. STELLWAGEN SAYS A RAILROAD WOULD INJURE THE WATER MAIN.

The Commissioners have received a letter from Mr. Edward J. Stellwagen in regard to the proposed use of L street by the Belt Line road. In the letter Mr. Stellwagen says:

"The subject of the proposed extension through L street of the Belt Line Railroad being one of much public interest, I desire to state a reason why this franchise should not be granted. The large 36-inch water main, giving to the central portion of Washington its best supply, passes through this street for almost its entire length, and is at many points, according to the statement of the engineer officer in charge of the city's water supply, only 4 feet below the surface of the street.

"The extreme depth of the excavation necessary in the construction of a cable road such as the Washington and Georgetown line is 4 feet 3 inches, and in the construction of an underground electric line similar to that on U street, while the needed depth is not so great, yet it is sufficient to leave so little earth between the yokes and the water main as to make the main practically a part of the foundation for the yokes.

"In either of the constructions above noted large quantities of concrete are used, so that from outer rail to outer rail there exists a mass of iron, cement, and broken stone through which it would be most expensive, if even possible, to work should any accident happen to the large main. It is also likely that the main, becoming incorporated in and forming a part of the foundation of the road, would naturally be injured by the travel of heavy cars over the tracks. Without being subjected to any such duty this main has already broken at a point west of Connecticut avenue, caused by settlement, due to a poor foundation; and, as this same foundation exists to-day in many places, it is only reasonable to look for such breaks in the future.

"Assuming, therefore, that a yoke system can not be used on this street, there remains of the modern methods the overhead trolley alone.

"In an exhaustive paper on the subject of the destruction of metallic street pipes on the lines of overhead trolley roads, read recently before the electrical convention held in this city, the facts stated remain uncontradicted, so that it is fair to assume that this destruction does take place, and that all mains, whether large or small, are more or less injured by such a system. It is hoped that when the honorable Commissioners of the District of Columbia recommended the substitution of L street for the one asked for by the railroad company they did so without fully considering this point, and that you will reconsider the recommendation. The northwest section of Washington has but three east and west street through which pass the large supply mains, the 30 inch on K street, the 36 inch on L street, and the 48 inch on R street. In addition to any other reasons which may exist is not the presence of these large and needed city mains a great reason why none of these streets should be given over to railroad occupancy?"

AGAINST MORE RAILROADS—EX-SENATOR EDMUNDS OPPOSES USING CERTAIN RESIDENCE STREETS.

Ex-Senator George F. Edmunds has written the following interesting letter to the Commissioners concerning additional railroads in the city of Washington:

"While in Washington last week I learned that several projects for more street railroads in the northwest part of the city were being pressed for your approval, with a view of getting Congressional authority for their construction. As you may remember, I have practically resided in northwest Washington for twenty-five years and have been a householder for nearly that time. But I have never been an owner, or in an anyway interested in any real estate or real-estate enterprises or speculation, further or other than to own my own place, at No. 1411 Massachusetts avenue, and having sold that, my present place at 2111 Massachusetts avenue, nor have I been at any time interested in any street railway line.

"I thus stand as one simple householder, and so my interests are the same as the great body of the residents of that part of the city. I say this in order that you may know that I am under no particular bias. I believe it to be a fact beyond dispute that the house and land owners along the streets in which it is proposed to build these lines are in opposition.

"What, then, is the reason for this continual urgency by the persons and corporations who are asking these privileges? It is, evidently, not for the common good of the inhabitants of that part of the city, unless the railroad companies consider them-

selves superior judges in the matter, and, as it were, guardians of the interests of the people, and would do good to them in spite of themselves. I must admit that this idea is not very uncommon. I respectfully suggest that the city authorities ought not give any weight to such considerations. And I suggest also that it is not just or good government to injure the interest or impair the comfort of the people of one part of the District to benefit those who have lands to sell beyond the city limits.

"If the city were already overcrowded with population there might be an excuse for spoiling the beauty of the avenues and streets in the northwest part of the city and diminishing the comfort and, to a degree, endangering the lives of the people there. But it is a fact of ocular demonstration that the northwest part of the city, to say nothing of other sections, is, and will be for years to come, capable of containing probably 1,000 or 2,000 more houses than now exist.

"It is, I think, of vast importance to the future of our great and increasingly attractive capital city—never, I hope, to be a city of great trade and traffic—that those parts of it already complete in its streets and walks, and settled by people wishing homes of quiet and safety, should be left untouched by lines of monopolistic traffic, which in such a quarter are unnecessary, and whose chief reason to be is the making of profits for railway speculators and investors."

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 162.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 23, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. DOLPH presented the following

STATEMENT OF CALIFORNIA, OREGON, AND NEVADA RELATIVE TO THEIR STATE REBELLION WAR CLAIMS AGAINST THE UNITED STATES; MADE IN SUPPORT OF SENATE BILL NO. 101, INTRODUCED BY SENATOR STEWART, OF NEVADA, ON AUGUST 8, 1893, AND OF SENATE BILL NO. 1033, INTRODUCED ON OCTOBER 2, 1893, AND SENATE BILL NO. 1062, INTRODUCED BY SENATOR DOLPH, OF OREGON, ON OCTOBER 9, 1893, AND OF SENATE BILL NO. 1295, INTRODUCED BY SENATOR WHITE, OF CALIFORNIA, ON DECEMBER 18, 1893, AND OF HOUSE BILL NO. 2615, INTRODUCED BY REPRESENTATIVE CAMINETTI, OF CALIFORNIA, ON SEPTEMBER 11, 1893, AND OF HOUSE BILL NO. 4959, INTRODUCED JANUARY 3, 1894, BY REPRESENTATIVE MAGUIRE, OF CALIFORNIA, ALL HAVING FOR THEIR OBJECT "TO REIMBURSE THE STATES OF CALIFORNIA, OREGON, AND NEVADA FOR MONEYS BY THEM EXPENDED IN THE SUPPRESSION OF THE REBELLION WHEN AIDING THE UNITED STATES TO MAINTAIN THE 'COMMON DEFENSE' ON THE PACIFIC COAST."

The facts out of which the aforesaid State war claims arise have been very fully stated in several reports heretofore made in the House of Representatives and to the Senate, as follows, to wit: House Report No. 254, and Senate Report No. 158, Fifty-second Congress, first session; House Report No. 2553, and Senate Report No. 644, Fifty-first Congress, first session; and House Report No. 3396 and Senate Reports No. 1286 and No. 2014, Fiftieth Congress, first session.

Bills relating to these State war claims of these three Pacific coast States, passed the Senate during the first session of the Fiftieth Congress, and were favorably reported to the Senate during the first session of the Fifty-first and Fifty-second Congress, and to the House during the Fiftieth, Fifty-first and Fifty-second Congresses, but were not reached for consideration by the House, in either thereof. Similar Senate bills, to wit: Nos. 101, 1062, 1295, were introduced during the first and second sessions, Fifty-third Congress, by Senators Stewart, Dolph, and White, of California, and all referred to the Senate Committee on Military Affairs. Similar House bills, to wit: H. R. No. 2615 were also introduced in the House on 11th day of September, 1893, by Mr. Caminetti, of California, House bill No. 4959, on January 3, 1894, by Mr. Maguire, of California, and both referred to the House Committee on War Claims.

Sums of money (recited in three reports made by the honorable Secretary of War to the Senate, on the State war claims and printed as Senate Ex. Docs. Nos. 10, 11, and 17, Fifty-first Congress, first session) proven to the full satisfaction of the War Department to have been expended by said States to aid the United States in the suppression of the war of the rebellion were included in the general deficiency appropriation bill as it passed the Senate during the second session of the fifty-first Congress, for the purpose of indemnifying and reimbursing said States on account and in partial liquidation of said claims, but the same were omitted from said deficiency bill as it became a law. Senate bill No. 52, and House bills No. 54 and No. 42, Fifty-second Congress, first session were in all respects identical; the last of which House bills, was, on February 10, 1892, favorably reported by the House War Claims Committee in House Report No. 254, Fifty-second Congress, first session and said Senate bill No. 52, was on February 4, 1892, favorably reported by the Senate Committee on Military Affairs in Senate Report No. 158, as follows, to wit:

[Senate Report No. 158, Fifty-second Congress, first session.]

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

FEBRUARY 4, 1892.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. Davis, from the Committee on Military Affairs, submitted the following report (to accompany S. 52):

The Committee on Military Affairs, to whom was referred the bill (S. 52) to reimburse the States of California, Oregon, and Nevada for moneys by them expended in the suppression of the rebellion, have examined the same and report as follows, to wit:

This measure was considered by this Committee during the first session of the Fifty-first Congress, and was reported upon favorably (Report No. 644).

Your committee concur in the conclusions stated in that report, and recommend the passage of the bill.

At a very early period of the war of the rebellion, nearly all the troops of the regular Army of the United States, then serving in California, Oregon, and Nevada, were withdrawn from military duty in those States and transported thence by sea to New York City at an expense to the United States of about $390,103, or at an average cost of about $284 for each commissioned officer and of about $133 for each enlisted man.

This withdrawal therefrom of said regular troops left these three Pacific coast States comparatively defenseless, and for the purpose of supplying their places, and to provide additional military forces, rendered necessary by public exigencies, calls for volunteers were made upon said States under proclamations of the President, or requisitions by the War Department, or by its highest military officers commanding the military departments on the Pacific. These calls for volunteers continued until the necessity therefor entirely ceased to exist, during which time these three Pacific coast States furnished, enlisted, equipped, enrolled, paid, and mustered into military service of the United States 18,715 volunteers, as shown in said reports so made to the Senate by the Secretary of War.

In consequence of this withdrawal in 1861 of said military forces from the Pacific coast, in order that they might perform military service in the East, and in view of the circumstances and exigencies existing in the Pacific coast States and Territories during the rebellion period, requisitions were duly made from time to time by the President of the United States and by the Secretary of War upon the proper State authorities of California, Oregon, and Nevada for volunteers to perform military service for the United States in said States and Territories, as are fully and in great detail set forth in Senate Ex. Docs. Nos. 10, 11, 17, Fifty-first Congress, first session. In compliance with the several calls and official requisitions so made between 1861 and 1866, inclusive.

	Volunteers.
The State of California furnished	15,725
The State of Nevada furnished	1,180
The State of Oregon furnished	1,810
Making a total aggregate of	18,715

men who were enlisted and were thereafter duly mustered into the military service of the United States as volunteers from said States. The same number of troops if organized in the East and transported from New York City to the Pacific coast States and Territories in the same manner as was done by the United States War Department from June 17, 1850, to August 3, 1861, would have cost the United States at that time the sum of about $5,483,385, for *transportation alone.*

The indemnification for the "costs, charges, and expenses" properly incurred by said States for enrolling, subsisting, clothing, supplying, arming, equipping, paying, transporting, and furnishing said 18,715 volunteer troops employed by the United States to aid them to maintain the "common defense," was guaranteed by the United States in the act of Congress approved July 27, 1861 (12 U. S. Stats., 276), an act entitled "An act to indemnify the States for expenses incurred by them in defense of the United States."

The then Secretary of War, Hon. Redfield Proctor, now U. S. Senator from Vermont (on p. 28 of his report, Senate Ex. Doc. No. 41, Fifty-first Congress, first session), in reporting upon the military services performed by said volunteers during the rebellion, said:

They took the places of the regular troops in California, all of which, except three batteries of artillery and one regiment of infantry, were withdrawn to the east at an early period after the outbreak of the war. Without them (and the Oregon and Nevada volunteers) the overland mail and emigrant routes, extending from the Missouri River via Great Salt Lake City to California and Oregon, and passing through an uninhabited and mountainous country infested with hostile Indians and highwaymen, could not have been adequately protected; and yet it was of the first importance to have these routes kept open and safe, especially as rebel cruisers had made the sea routes both hazardous and expensive. Two expeditions composed of California volunteers, under the command of Brig. Gens. James H. Carleton and Patrick E. Connor, respectively, performed perilous and exhausting marches across a desert and over an almost impassable country and established themselves, the latter in Utah—where, besides protecting the mail routes, a watchful eye was kept on the uncertain and sometimes threatening attitude of the Mormons—and the former in Arizona and New Mexico, which Territories were thereafter effectually guarded in the interests of the United States against Indians and rebels.

On March 3, 1863 (12 U. S. Stats., 808), Congress organized the Territory of Idaho, the extensive mineral discoveries in which, attracting thousands of miners, explorers, and immigrants, naturally necessitated an additional volunteer military force to guard and protect so extended, difficult and new Indian frontier lines.

On October 14, 1861, the Secretary of State, Hon. William H. Seward, by direction of the President of the United States, issued to the governors of all the loyal States, a circular letter, wherein the attention of the proper authorities of said States was invited to the necessity of improving and perfecting the defenses of their respective States, to be done in a manner such as should thereafter be determined by the legislature of each of said States who were to rely upon Congress to sanction their action, and to reimburse all expenses by them so incurred, Mr. Secretary Seward, expressing it as his opinion, that "such proceedings by said States would require only a temporary use of their means."

Said circular letter is as follows, to wit:

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, October 14, 1861.

SIR: The present insurrection had not even revealed itself in arms when disloyal citizens hastened to foreign countries to invoke their intervention for the overthrow of the Government and the destruction of the Federal Union. These agents are known to have made their appeals to some of the more important States without success. It is not likely, however, that they will remain content with such refusals. Indeed, it is understood that they are industriously endeavoring to accomplish their disloyal purposes by degrees and by indirection. Taking advantage of the embar-

rassments of agriculture, manufacture, and commerce in foreign countries, resulting from the insurrection they have inaugurated at home, they seek to involve our common country in controversies with States with which every public interest and every interest of mankind require that it shall remain in relations of peace, amity, and friendship. I am able to state, for your satisfaction, that the prospect of any such disturbance is now less serious than it has been at any previous period since the course of the insurrection. It is nevertheless necessary now, as it has hitherto been, to take every precaution that is possible to avert the evils of foreign war to be superinduced upon those of civil commotion which we are endeavoring to cure. One of the most obvious of such precautions is that our ports and harbors on the seas and lakes should be put in a condition of complete defense, for any nation may be said to voluntarily incur danger in tempestuous seasons when it fails to show that it has sheltered itself on every side from which the storm might possibly come.

The measures which the Executive can adopt in this emergency are such only as Congress has sanctioned and for which it has provided. The President is putting forth the most diligent efforts to execute these measures, and we have the great satisfaction of seeing that these efforts, seconded by the favor, aid, and support of a loyal, patriotic, and self-sacrificing people, are rapidly bringing the military and naval forces of the United States into the highest state of efficiency. But Congress was chiefly absorbed during its recent extra session with those measures and did not provide as amply as could be wished for the fortification of our sea and lake coasts. In previous wars, loyal States have applied themselves by independent and separate activity to support and aid the Federal Government in its arduous responsibilities. The same disposition has been manifested in a degree eminently honorable by all the loyal States during the present insurrection. In view of this fact, and relying upon the increase and continuance of the same disposition on the part of the loyal States, the President has directed me to invite your consideration to the subject of the improvement and perfection of the defenses of the State over which you preside, and to ask you to submit the subject to the consideration of the legislature when it shall have assembled. Such proceedings by the State would require only a temporary use of means.

The expenditures ought to be made the subject of conference with the Federal authorities. Being thus made with the concurrence of the Government for general defense, there is every reason to believe that Congress would sanction what the State should do and would provide for its reimbursement. Should these suggestions be accepted the President will direct proper agents of the Federal Government to confer with you and to superintend, direct, and conduct the prosecution of the system of defense of your State.

I have the honor to be, sir, your obedient servant,

WILLIAM H. SEWARD.

His Excellency THOMAS H. HICKS,
Governor of the State of Maryland.

The Attorney-General of the United States, on June 11, 1891, in rendering an opinion, at the request of the honorable Secretary of the Treasury, involving a question as to the "State war claims of the State of Vermont against the United States," declared that the defense of the State of Vermont by said State during the war of the rebellion, as recited in his said opinion, was the defense of the United States, and that all expenses so incurred by said State in repelling invasion and in preparing to resist attacks, etc., constitute valid charges against the United States to be paid out of the public Treasury.

From June 17, 1850, and continuously until August 3, 1861, the practice of the War Department under the laws of Congress was to pay each soldier, enlisted, recruited, or re-enlisted in the State of California, Oregon, and Nevada, a sum of money which, while Congress termed it a "bounty," yet it in fact and effect was, and was intended to be merely extra or additional pay in the form of a constructive mileage equivalent to the cost of transporting a soldier from New York City to the place of such enlistment or re-enlistment; said sum was to be paid to each Pacific coast soldier in installments, in the amounts, at the times, and in the manner as recited in the act of Congress therefor, approved June 17, 1850, the third section of which reads as follows:

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted,* That whenever enlistments are made at or in the vicinity of, the said military posts, and remote and distant stations, a bounty equal

in amount to the cost of transporting and subsisting a soldier from the principal recruiting depot in the harbor of New York, to the place of such enlistment, be, and the same is hereby, allowed to each recruit so enlisted, to be paid in unequal installments at the end of each year's service, so that the several amounts shall annually increase, and the largest be paid at the expiration of each enlistment. (U. S. Stat., vol. 9, p. 439.)

Congress, during the rebellion, changed the manner of maintaining a military force in these three Pacific coast States by relying, to a very large degree, if not almost exclusively, upon volunteers to be enlisted and raised therein, and wherefore, on August 3, 1861, repealed said law. (12 U. S. Stats., sec. 9, p. 289.)

In consequence of the high cost of living in California and Oregon, Congress, on 28th September, 1850, passed an act paying to every commissioned officer serving in those States an extra $2 per day, and to all the enlisted men serving in the U. S. Army in those States double the pay then being paid to the troops of the regular Army. This law is as follows, to wit:

For extra pay to the commissioned officers and enlisted men of the Army of the United States, serving in Oregon or California, three hundred and twenty-five thousand eight hundred and fifty-four dollars, on the following basis, to wit: That there shall be allowed to each commissioned officer as aforesaid, whilst serving as aforesaid, a per diem, in addition to their regular pay and allowances, of two dollars each, and to each enlisted man as aforesaid, whilst serving as aforesaid, a per diem, in addition to their present pay and allowances, equal to the pay proper of each as established by existing laws, said extra pay of the enlisted men to be retained until honorably discharged. This additional pay to continue until the first of March, eighteen hundred and fifty-two, or until otherwise provided. (U. S. Stat., vol. 9, p. 504.)

It will be here noticed that under these two acts of Congress, the one of the 17th of June, 1850, and the other of the 28th of September, 1850, the so-called "extra pay" and the so-called "bounty" or constructive mileage, were both paid during one and the same period of time by the United States to its own troops serving in the regular United States Army stationed in these States.

If the necessity for this character of legislation for the regular Army of the United States recited in these two acts existed in a time of profound peace—and no one doubts but that a necessity therefor did exist—then how much greater the necessity for similar legislation in a period of actual war, when the land carriage for supplies over a distance of 2,000 miles, from the Missouri River to these Pacific coast States, was simply impossible, or at least impracticable, there not being then any overland railroads, and the two sea routes via Cape Horn and the Isthmus of Panama, as recited in the said reports of the Secretary of War, being both hazardous and expensive?

The condition of public affairs existing in these Pacific coast States in the early part of 1863 is recited on pages 25 and 26 of House Report No. 254, Fifty-second Congress, first session, in words as follows, to wit:

In the early part of April, 1863, the overland mail and emigrant route was attacked by Indians and communication was closed between the Atlantic States and the Pacific coast. This route extended from the Missouri River to California via the Platte River, Salt Lake City, through Nevada to Sacramento, in California, and was the only means at that date of direct overland communication between the Missouri River and California. At this time the gold discoveries in California continued to invite a large immigration, the interest in which was more or less intensified by the continued extensive silver discoveries in Nevada Territory, and principally on the Comstock lode, in the western part of the Territory. The routes via Cape Horn, and especially that via the Isthmus of Panama, were rendered extremely doubtful, dangerous, and expensive, on account of Confederate privateer cruisers hovering around the West India Islands and along both these sea routes, and in anticipation of other Confederate cruisers infesting the waters of the Pacific (which soon thereafter

became the theater of the operations and extensive depredations of the Confederate privateer *Shenandoah*), the overland route, therefore, although in itself both dangerous and difficult, was yet considered the better and preferable route by which to reach the Pacific.

On account of a general uprising of the Indians along the entire overland route, and especially that portion between Salt Lake City, in the Territory of Utah, and the Sierra Nevada Mountains, and because of the doubts as to the loyalty of the Mormons to the Government of the United States, the maintenance and protection of the mail and emigrant route through that section of the country and along the aforesaid line was regarded by the Government as a military necessity. Apparently in anticipation of no immediate danger of attack on the Pacific coast, nearly all the troops of the regular Army at this time had been withdrawn from service throughout this entire region of country and transferred east to other fields of military operations. This left the entire country between Salt Lake City and the Sierra Nevada Mountains without adequate and efficient military protection. The Government thus having but few troops of its regular Army in that region, was therefore compelled to call upon the inhabitants of Nevada Territory to raise and organize volunteer military companies to suppress Indian disturbances which threatened the entire suspension of all mail facilities and emigration from the East, as will be hereafter shown.

At the time of the calls upon Nevada for troops the prices of labor and supplies of all descriptions in Nevada were extremely high. There were then no railroads, and the snow on the Sierra Nevada Mountains formed an almost impassable barrier against teams from about the 1st of December until about June. The average cost of freight from San Francisco, the main source of supply for western Nevada, was about $80 a ton, and it was necessary to lay in supplies during the summer and fall for the remainder of the year. A great mining excitement prevailed at this time, occasioned by the marvelous development of the great Comstock lode, and wages were from $4 to $10 a day, in gold. The people who had emigrated to the new gold and silver fields went there for the purpose of mining and prospecting for mines, and were generally reluctant to enter the irregular military service of guarding the overland mail and emigrant route. Besides, on account of the extraordinary high price of supplies of every description, and also of wages and services of every kind, it was impossible for them to maintain themselves and familes without involving much more expense than any compensation which could be paid them as volunteer troops under the laws of the United States, and, as will be seen by the letters of Gen. Wright, hereafter quoted, they were expected, as volunteer troops, to furnish themselves with horses and equipments, in addition to what could be furnished by the Government.

The military authorities of the United States well knew at that time the exact condition of the country and of the roads across the mountains leading thereto and of the cost of transportation and of the prices of labor and of supplies and of their own inability to furnish either horses or equipments for a military service that required mounted troops.

It was amid circumstances like these that the honorable Secretary of the Treasury, by telegraphic instructions to the assistant treasurer of the United States at San Francisco, Cal., under date of February 9, 1863 (on which date there was on deposit in the subtreasury at San Francisco, to the credit of the United States, a large amount of gold and silver coin), directed the paymasters of the Army to pay said volunteers in U. S. notes, commonly called greenbacks. An exemplification of the effect of such instructions is reported by the Secretary of War on pp. 40 and 41, Senate Ex. Doc. No. 11, Fifty-first Congress, first session, in words as follows, to wit:

EXHIBIT No. 10.

DEPUTY PAYMASTER-GENERAL'S OFFICE,
San Francisco, February 13, 1863.

SIR: Yesterday payment of my checks was refused by the assistant treasurer in San Francisco. In reply to a note which I addressed him, I received the following:

"OFFICE OF THE ASSISTANT TREASURER UNITED STATES,
"*San Francisco, February 2, 1863.*

"SIR: Your communication of this date relative to the check of $80,000 presented but a few minutes since by Maj. Eddy and payment declined by me, etc., is just received.

"Under instructions from the honorable Secretary of the Treasury United States of February 9, 1863, I am advised that 'checks of disbursing officers must be paid in United States notes.' Not having notes on hand sufficient to meet the check presented and referred to you has compelled me to decline payment of the same for the time being.

"Respectfully, your obedient servant,

"D. W. CHEESEMAN,
"*Assistant Treasurer, United States.*

"GEORGE H. RINGGOLD,
"*Deputy Paymaster-General U. S. Army.*"

The effect of these instructions is abruptly to stop payment of the troops. I had drawn out a sufficiency, principally in coin, to pay the posts in Oregon and a portion of the troops in this immediate vicinity; the delay will, I fear, cause great dissatisfaction to those remaining unpaid, as there was a confident expectation that they would now be paid off and in coin.

In connection with the above statement, I deem proper to forward herewith a copy of a letter recently received from Maj. Drew, of the Oregon cavalry, which so clearly sets forth the condition of things as regards legal tenders on this coast as to make comment on my part superfluous, except simply to add that gold is the only currency here, and that U. S. Treasury notes are worth only what they will bring on the street. They are quoted at 61 to-day.

I have the honor to remain, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

GEO. H. RINGGOLD,
Deputy Paymaster-General.

Lieut. Col. T. P. ANDREWS,
Acting Paymaster-General U. S. Army.

Respectfully referred to Treasurer of the United States with the request that the funds may be sent to assistant treasurer at San Francisco to meet the drafts in favor of paymasters, and to return these papers for such other action as may be necessary.

T. P. ANDREWS,
Paymaster-General.

PAYMASTER-GENERAL'S OFFICE, *March 18, 1863.*

If the Treasurer would be kind enough to furnish us with any suggestions from the Treasury that would tend to do away the causes of complaint in this, to us, difficult case, we should feel indebted.

T. P. ANDREWS,
Paymaster-General.

PAYMASTER-GENERAL'S OFFICE, *March 18, 1863.*

TREASURER'S OFFICE, *March 19, 1863.*

Respectfully referred to the Secretary of the Treasury.

F. E. SPINNER,
Treasurer United States.

Concerning the foregoing condition of financial affairs in these three States and the effect thereof upon their volunteer troops then serving in the U. S. Army in the Department of the Pacific, the honorable Secretary of War (House Report No. 254, Fifty-second Congress, first session, p. 20) reported as follows, to wit:

It appears that up to December 31, 1862, those of the U. S. troops serving in the Department of the Pacific who were paid at all—in some cases detachments had not been paid for a year or more—were generally paid in coin, but on February 9, 1863, instructions were issued from the Treasury Department to the assistant treasurer of the United States at San Francisco that "checks of disbursing officers must be paid in United States notes." (Letter of Deputy Paymaster-General George H. Ringgold, dated February 13, 1863, to Paymaster-General; copy herewith marked Exhibit No. 10.)

Before this greenbacks had become the current medium of exchange in all ordinary business transactions in the Eastern States, but in the Pacific coast States and the adjoining Territories gold continued to be the basis of circulation throughout the war. At this time the paper currency had become greatly depreciated, and on February 28, 1863, the price of gold in Treasury notes touched 170. This action of the

Government in compelling troops to accept such notes as an equivalent of gold in payment for services rendered by them in a section where coin alone was current gave rise to much dissatisfaction; for although gold could be bought in San Francisco at nearly the same price in Treasury notes as in New York, it must be remembered that the troops in the Department of the Pacific were largely stationed at remote and isolated points.

When paying in greenbacks for articles purchased by or for services rendered to them in these out-of-way places, they were obliged to submit not only to the current discount in San Francisco, but also to a further loss occasioned by the desire of the persons who sold the articles or rendered the service to protect themselves against possible further depreciation. It admits of little doubt that by reason of his inability to realize the full value of paper money, as quoted in the money centers, and of the fact that wages and the cost of living and of commodities of every kind were abnormally high (owing in great part to the development of newly-discovered mines in that region), the purchasing power of the greenback dollar in the hands of the average soldier serving in the Department of the Pacific was from the latter part of 1862 onward from 25 to 50 per cent less than that of the same dollar paid to his fellow soldier in the East.

Representations of the great hardships the Treasury Department's instructions entailed upon the troops were promptly made. On March 10, 1863, the legislature telegraphed to Washington a resolution adopted on that date instructing the State's delegation in Congress to impress upon the Executive "the necessity which exists of having officers and soldiers of the U. S. Army, officers, seamen, and marines of the U. S. Navy, and all citizen employés in the service of the Government of the United States serving west of the Rocky Mountains and on the Pacific coast paid their salaries and pay in gold and silver currency of the United States, provided the same be paid in as revenue on this coast." (P. 46, Statement for Senate Committee on Military Affairs.)

And on March 16, 1863, Brig. Gen. G. Wright, the commander of the Department of the Pacific (comprising, besides California, the State of Oregon and the Territories of Nevada, Utah, and Arizona), transmitted to the Adjutant-General of the U. S. Army a letter of Maj. C. S. Drew, First Oregon Cavalry, commandant at Camp Baker, Oreg., containing an explicit statement of the effects of and a formal protest against paying his men in greenbacks. In his letter of transmittal (p. 154, Ex. Doc. 70), Gen. Wright remarked as follows:

"The difficulties and embarrassments enumerated in the major's communication are common to all the troops in this department, and I most respectfully ask the serious consideration of the General-in-Chief and the War Department to this subject. Most of the troops would prefer waiting for their pay to receiving notes worth but little more than half their face; but even at this ruinous discount officers, unless they have private means, are compelled to receive the notes. Knowing the difficulties experienced by the Government in procuring coin to pay the Army, I feel great reluctance in submitting any grievances from this remote department, but justice to the officers and soldiers demands that a fair statement should be made to the War Department."

The letter of Maj. C. S. Drew referred to by the honorable Secretary of War in the foregoing report is printed on p. 154, Sen. Ex. Doc. No. 17, Fifty-first Congress, first session, and is as follows, to wit:

CAMP BAKER, OREG., *March 4, 1863.*

COLONEL: I inclose herewith, for the consideration of the commanding general, the resignation of Asst. Surg. D. S. Holton, First Cavalry, Oregon Volunteers. Dr. Holton is a zealous and faithful officer, and I regret that circumstances, those which he sets forth, render it necessary for him to leave the service. But knowing the facts in the premises I must nevertheless recommend, as I now do, that his resignation be accepted. While upon the subject of resignations I beg to remark that the cause assigned by Dr. Holton for his resignation is valid and sufficient, doubtless, for its acceptance. But there is another which in its practical workings is almost as potent, and which precludes the possibility for any of the officers at this post to remain much longer in the service. I allude to their nonpayment since they entered the service, as also that of the entire command. This has borne heavily upon the officers, more especially as they have been compelled to hire money, some of them for more than a year past, with which to purchase their horses and equipments and to defray personal expenses. The act of Congress of June 18, 1862, requiring "that company officers of volunteers," and unjustly applied to the field and staff of regiments also, "shall be paid on the muster and pay rolls," has worked a great injury to the officers here, as it has, no doubt, in other portions of this department, by inhibiting the use of "pay accounts," which in our case could have been used as collater-

als, at or near their face, in obtaining the money for our expenditures. But no such arrangement could be effected under the new regulations, as by its requirements the death of the officer or his removal to other and distant post would enhance the probability of a delay in payment of his indebtedness and increase the risk and expense attending its final collection. Hence the greater rate of interest charged.

But this is not all. The money borrowed has been specie, and must be paid in the same currency, while payment to the officers is liable to be made in Treasury notes, worth here not more than 50 to 55 cents per dollar, and very little sale for them even at those low figures; thus, practically, with the interest which has accrued on the amount borrowed, it will require more than $2 of the money in which the officer is paid to repay $1 of that which he owes. With this condition of things, too, each officer and soldier of this command is serving for less than half pay, and have done so, some of them, for more than sixteen months past. Under these circumstances it must be impossible for any of the officers here to serve much longer without becoming irretrievably bankrupt and bringing upon themselves all the contumely and reproach that such misfortune is always sure to create. But private injury is not all that this delay and final mode of payment inflicts. It is exceedingly detrimental to the public service generally, as without any stated market value to the notes, and no surety as to when payment in them, even, will be made, in every purchase or other expenditure made here, not only the current San Francisco discount on the notes is added to the specie value of the article or service, but, in addition to all this, a large percentage for the risk of a further depreciation in their value, and a vexatious delay in payment.

It is thus that capital protects itself from loss, and perhaps realizes better profits than under the old and better system of payment in coin. But the soldier has not this power, not even that to protect himself against loss, and if paid in notes must necessarily receipt in full for what is equivalent to him of half pay or less, for the service he has rendered, and must continue to fulfill his part of his contract with the Government for the same reduced rate of pay, until his period of service shall terminate. This, in its practical results, is making a distinction between capital and labor, or personal service, unfriendly and injurious to the latter, that I am sure was never contemplated or designed by the War Department, and its abolishment here at least would be of much advantage to the service, besides meting out but simple justice to long-deferred creditors, and at no greater cost to the Government. This delay and uncertainty about the payment of the troops at this post is also working a public injury by preventing enlistments in this part of Oregon, in any considerable number, for the new companies ordered to fill this regiment. Good men will not enlist for $6 or $7 a month while $13 is the regular pay, and moreover, being realized by every soldier in any other department than the Pacific. Men who would enlist under these circumstances are, as a general rule, entirely worthless for soldiers or anything else, and would be an incubus upon the service if permitted to join it.

I beg to be understood as reporting the condition of things actually existing here, and not as I would have them. Neither would I be understood as casting any censure whatever upon any officer of this department. I am aware that Col. Ringgold would have taken as favorable action in our case with regard to payment as he has at any other post, had it not have been for the unfortunate order of the Secretary of the Treasury that his drafts should be paid in notes, and at a time too when there were no notes on hand. I trust that the commanding general will give us a word of encouragement, if in his power, so that it may be imparted to the men of this command, many of whom are becoming somewhat alarmed as to their pay and as to the currency to be used in payment.

I am, colonel, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

C. S. DREW,
Major First Cavalry, Oregon Volunteers.

RICHARD C. DRUM,
Assistant Adjutant-General, U. S. Army,
Headquarters Department of the Pacific, San Francisco, Cal.

This action was had by the authorities of the United States notwithstanding the contents of General Orders No. 16 from the Headquarters of the Army, issued on September 3, 1861, which is as follows, to wit:

[General Orders, No. 16.]

HEADQUARTERS OF THE ARMY,
Washington, September 3, 1861.

The general in chief is happy to announce that the Treasury Department—to meet future payments to the troops—is about to supply, besides coin, as heretofore, Treas-

ury notes in fives, tens, and twenties, as good as gold at all banks and Government offices throughout the United States, and most convenient for transmission by mail from officers and men to their families at home. Good husbands, fathers, sons, and brothers, serving under the Stars and Stripes, will thus soon have the ready and safe means of relieving an immense amount of suffering which could not be reached with coin.

In making up such packages every officer may be relied upon, no doubt, for such assistance as may be needed by his men.

By command of Lieut. Gen. Scott.

E. D. TOWNSEND,
Assistant Adjutant-General.

In consequence of the foregoing, formal protests were duly forwarded to the War Department by the commanding general, Division of the Pacific, and legislative appeals by these States were made direct to Congress to come to the relief of the volunteers then serving the United States in these Pacific coast States, by increasing to living rates the pay of said troops. But all such protests, appeals, and representations in behalf of these troops proved, in the language of the Secretary of War, "perfectly futile."

The reports of the honorable Secretary of War on this subject recite as follows, to wit:

It was under circumstances and exigencies such as these that the legislatures themselves—all appeals to the General Government having proved futile—provided the necessary relief by the law of April 27, 1863. They did not even after that relax their efforts on behalf of the United States troops, other than their own volunteers, serving among them, but on April 1, 1864, adopted a resolution requesting their representatives in Congress to "use their influence in procuring the passage of a law giving to the officers and soldiers of the regular Army stationed on the Pacific coast an increase of their pay, amounting to 30 per cent on the amount now allowed by law." (Senate Ex. Doc. No. 17, Fifty-first Congress, first session, p. 14.)

It was under and amid national financial embarrassments like these that these three Pacific coast States (California taking the lead, and Oregon and Nevada following in due course, and California not moving therein until April 27, 1863) felt compelled to come to the relief of their own volunteers, then serving in the U. S. Army therein, and passed acts through their respective legislatures, under and by which each volunteer in each of said States was to be paid the sum of $5 per month, and in order to raise the money with which to pay the same, said States, under appropriate acts of their respective legislatures hereinafter recited, issued and sold their State gold bonds, and paid said $5 per month, in gold coin, to their said volunteers.

In 1864 the period of the three years' enlistments of the volunteers in these States who had been mustered in 1861 into the military service of the United States was approaching termination. These volunteers were in the field, scattered throughout the deserts of Arizona and New Mexico, in the South; in Washington Territory, in the North; along the Western slopes of the Rocky Mountains, in the East; and guarding the immigrant and overland mail routes and pony express lines, extending from the Missouri River to the Pacific Ocean, which duties, onerous and vexatious, were soon to be supplemented by others equally so in protecting and escorting exploring, reconnoitering, and surveying parties, about to engage in running preliminary lines of overland railroad surveys for the Central and Union Pacific railroads, rendering it necessary, not only to maintain an adequate military force, then in the field, but to provide for exigencies in the near future, which seemed to render an additional volunteer military force absolutely necessary.

The war in the East was still flagrant, and no one could then foretell the end thereof. Gen. Lee had just invaded Pennsylvania with a large

army, and though defeated at Gettysburg, yet extensive and devastating raids were made into the State of Pennsylvania by the Confederate forces as late as July, 1864, by Gens. Early, Johnson, and McCausland, the effects of which are represented to have been even more disastrous to the people of that State than those arising from the raids made therein in 1862 by Gen. Zeb. Stuart, of the Confederate cavalry. Chambersburg, Pa., was burned on July 30, 1864, the Confederates destroying extensive properties in the counties of Adams, Bedford, Cumberland, Franklin, Fulton, Perry, Somerset, and York, lying along the southern border of Pennsylvania and adjoining the northern Maryland line, the value of which property so destroyed is reported to have aggregated a very large sum.

In addition to the foregoing, attention is called to the official decisions rendered in September, 1863, by the Second Comptroller of the Treasury, Hon. John M. Brodhead, to the effect that the volunteers of these and other States then serving in the Army of the United States, who should be discharged by virtue of reenlistments as veteran volunteers, *should not receive any mileage* from the places of their discharge to the places of their original enrollment. (See Second Comptroller's Decisions, September 8 and 9, 1863, vol. 25, pp. 422 and 425, printed as section 2192, on p. 283 of Digest of Second Comptroller's Decisions, vol. 1, 1861 to 1868.)

However valid these decisions may have been as declaratory of the intentions of the law as then viewed by the Treasury Department, yet the practical effect thereof was to discourage reenlistments in the case of these volunteers from California, about to be discharged in New Mexico, where they were serving at the dates of said decisions, many hundreds of miles from the places of their original enrollment. Under these decisions the United States paid a bounty or mileage to those volunteers *who did not reenlist in the U. S. Army*, but refused to pay it to those who did so reenlist.

The serious, in fact, alarming effect of these decisions of the honorable Second Comptroller upon the military condition of affairs in Arizona and New Mexico, where several regiments of these California volunteers were then serving, is shown by the great anxiety and serious concern of Brig. Gen. James H. Carleton, of the regular Army of the United States, commanding the department of New Mexico, so much so, that he made it the subject of a special report to the adjutant-general of the Army, at Washington, D. C., recited on pp. 60 and 61 (Report of Secretary of War, Senate Ex. Doc. No. 11, Fifty-first Congress, first session, in words as follows, to wit:

EXHIBIT No. 22.

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF NEW MEXICO,
Santa Fé, N. Mex., November 29, 1863.

GENERAL: Until Mr. Brodhead's decision was made, that volunteers who should be discharged by enlistment in veteran volunteers should not receive their mileage from the place of said discharge to the place of original enrollment, I entertained hopes that many, if not most, of the First and Fifth Regiments of Infantry, of the First Cavalry California Volunteers, and First Cavalry New Mexican Volunteers, would reenlist in the veteran volunteers. But since that decision was made it is very doubtful if the California volunteers will reenlist. Their present term of office will expire next August and September. Before that time other troops will have to be sent here to take their places, unless these can be induced to reenlist. The troops in this department should be made an exception to the general rule. In my opinion an order should be made giving all volunteers who reenlist in this department the $100 due on first enlistment and an increased bounty on the second over and above

the bounty paid to soldiers in the East, which would be equal to the cost of getting soldiers from the East to New Mexico. The Government in this way would lose nothing, but would rather gain, because these well-disciplined men would then remain, doubtless, and they have now become familiar with the country, and can do better service for that reason than any new comers. These men should receive their mileage on their first enlistment. In my opinion, the law clearly allows it to soldiers honorably discharged. If the Government do not deny their traveling allowances and will give the bounty named, I believe the most of these regiments can be got to remain. If the Government will not do this, I beg to give timely notice of the necessities which will exist to have troops sent to take their places in time to be in position before the term of service of these men expire.

The California troops do not wish to be sent as regiments back to California; they would rather be discharged here in case they do not reenlist. Some desire to go to the States, some to the gold fields of Arizona, some settle in New Mexico, and some go to California by whatever route they please. The true economy of the question would be promoted by making the bounties so liberal as to induce them to reenter the service for three years or during the war.

I am, general, very truly and respectfully, your obedient servant,

CHARLES H. CARLETON,
Brigadier-General, Commanding.

Brig. Gen. LORENZO THOMAS,
Adjutant-General, U. S. Army, Washington, D. C.

DEPARTMENT NEW MEXICO,
Santa Fé, N. Mex., July 12, 1865.

Official:

BEN. C. CUTLER,
Assistant Adjutant-General.

These three Pacific Coast States therefore and in consequence of the foregoing facts determined for the benefit of their respective volunteers who might reenlist (and thereby successfully retain veteran soldiers in the military service of the United States), or, who after April, 1864, should enlist for the first time in the U. S. Army, then serving in these States, to revive substantially the provisions of the aforesaid act of Congress of June 17, 1850, which had been in existence for the benefit of the U. S. Army serving on the Pacific coast, continuously from June 17, 1850, to August 3, 1861. Under the provisions of said act each volunteer soldier of these States, so enlisting or reenlisting in the U. S. Army after April 4, 1864 (the date of the California act for this specific purpose), was to be paid in installments, at the time and in the manner substantially as recited in said Congressional act of June 17, 1850, a sum of money assumed to be equal to the cost of transporting a soldier from New York City to the place of reenlistment or the enlistment of such volunteer soldier. In view of the scattered military stations of said Pacific coast volunteers—extending, as they did, from Arizona on the south, to Puget Sound on the north; and from San Francisco on the west to Salt Lake City on the east; this sum was fixed by all three of said States at $160 per each volunteer soldier, which sum at that time substantially represented about the average cost which the United States would have had to pay to transport a soldier from New York City to the places of such enlistment or reenlistment of said volunteers in said three States.

These three States, in reviving said act of Congress of June 17, 1850, in the manner and for the purposes therein recited, used substantially the identical language which Congress had used in said act, by calling said sum of money a "bounty," when, as aforesaid, it was, and was only intended to be, a *constructive mileage*, and which was paid by these States out of their respective State treasuries for the use and benefit of the United States in aid of the "common defense" during the war of the rebellion, but not beginning until after April 4, 1864, and as

contemplated by said act of Congress of July 27, 1861 (12 U. S. Stats., 276), and Joint Resolution 5 of March 8, 1862 (12 U. S. Stats., 615), and of March 19, 1862 (12 U. S. Stats., 616). In reference to this matter the Secretary of War, in Senate Ex. No. 11, pp. 22 and 23, Fifty-first Congress, first session, reported to the Senate as follows, to wit:

With respect to the circumstances and exigencies under which this expenditure was incurred by the State, it appears to be plain that it was the earnest desire of the legislature that such troops as the State had been or might thereafter be called upon to furnish the General Government should be promptly supplied. The time was approaching when the terms of most of the volunteer regiments raised in California in the early part of the war would expire. These regiments were occupying important stations in the State and in Territories of Utah, Arizona, and New Mexico, and it was obvious that it would become necessary either to continue them in service by filling them up with new recruits or reenlisted veterans, or, in the event of their disbandment, to replace them by new organizations. Volunteering under the calls of the previous year had progressed tardily, while lucrative employment in the State was abundant and the material inducements for men to enter the army were small. It was probable that unless these latter were considerably increased, recruiting would come to a standstill, and a draft, as in the Eastern States, have to be resorted to. That a draft in California was considered possible, and even probable, is shown by an official letter, written January 8, 1864, to the Adjutant-General of the Army by General Wright, commanding Department of the Pacific, in which he expressed the hope "of procuring quite a number of men who would prefer volunteering to running the chance of being drafted." (P. 205, Senate Ex. Doc. 70, Fiftieth Congress, second session.) The expectation that the mere fear of a draft would sufficiently stimulate volunteering had not, some months later, been realized; and under all circumstances, and prompted by the desire above mentioned, the legislature doubtless deemed it wise to enact the bounty law of April 4, 1864.

Attention is called in "Statement for Senate Committee on Military Affairs" (p. 27) to the third section of an act of Congress (9 U. S. Stats., 439) granting to persons enlisting on the Western frontier, and at remote and distant stations, a bounty equal in amount to the cost of transporting and subsisting soldiers from the principal recruiting depot in the harbor of New York to the place of enlistment, and it is argued that if it was just, proper, and expedient to grant such a bounty to men enlisting in the regular Army in such localities in time of peace, the allowance by California of a bounty to its volunteers when they were in the actual and active service of the United States in time of war, and "while the exigencies exceeded in degree those under which the United States have heretofore paid a much larger sum to its own regular Army serving in said States (of California, Oregon, and Nevada) in a time of peace, may be deemed to have been in harmony with the policy so long and so frequently executed by the United States.

These "costs, charges and expenses" so incurred by these States were:

(1) Military expenditures for recruiting volunteers.

(2) Military expenditures in organizing and paying volunteers.

(3) Military expenditures in and for Adjutant-General's Office.

(4) Military expenditures in paying volunteer commissioned officers between date of service and date of muster-in by the proper mustering officers of the United States.

(5) Military expenditures of a general and miscellaneous character.

All "costs, charges, and expenses" for the military services of the *militia* in all these States were *suspended* by the Secretary of War and are excluded from the present claims in accordance with recommendations heretofore made by the Committee on Military Affairs in the Senate and by the Committee on War Claims in the House.

Attention is specially called to the aforesaid two important resolutions of Congress adopted, the one on the 8th and the other on the 19th of March, 1862, the object of the first of which was to explain the aforesaid act of Congress of July 27, 1861, and the object of the second was to encourage and invite appropriations of money to be made by the several States as they might deem to be appropriate in the interests of the United States and wherein the obligation existed that the United

States should indemnify by fully reimbursing the several States out of any money in the Federal Treasury not otherwise appropriated, the sums of money which such States should appropriate and expend for the uses and purposes recited in the acts of the legislature of each State so appropriating the same. (12 U. S. Stats., 615–616.) These two resolutions are in words as follows, to wit:

A RESOLUTION declaratory of the intent and meaning of a certain act therein named.

Whereas doubts have arisen as to the true intent and meaning of act numbered eighteen, entitled "An act to *indemnify* the States for expenses incurred by them in "Defence of the United States," approved July twenty-seven, eighteen hundred and sixty-one (12 U. S. Stats., 276):

Be it resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the said act shall be construed to apply to expenses incurred as well after as before the date of the approval thereof.

Approved March 8, 1862 (12 U. S. Stats., 615.)

A RESOLUTION to authorize the Secretary of War to accept moneys appropriated by any State for the payment of its volunteers and to apply the same as directed by such State.

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That if any State during the present rebellion shall make any appropriation to pay the volunteers of that State, the Secretary of War is hereby authorized to accept the same, and cause it to be applied by the paymaster-general to the payments designated by the legislative act making the appropriation, in the same manner as if appropriated by act of Congress; and also to make any regulations that may be necessary for the disbursement and proper application of such funds to the specific purpose for which they may be appropriated by the several States.

Approved, March 19, 1862 (12 U. S. Stats., 616.)

In other words, the legislation enacted by Congress in said act and in these resolutions, taken in connection with subsequent similar legislation duly enacted by these States, constituted in effect and intendment, statutory contracts binding upon the United States. It is evident that Congress, in advance of all legislative acts, by these three States, making appropriations of money for their said volunteers, duly declared that all moneys appropriated by their respective legislatures, and paid out of their respective State treasuries, intended for the exclusive use and benefit of their said volunteers, theretofore, then, or thereafter serving in the military service of the United States, should be accepted by the United States, through the Secretary of War, and paid to the State volunteers of the States so appropriating said moneys, for the specific uses and purposes for which said States had so appropriated the same, and in the same manner, for the same purposes, and to the same extent as if said moneys had been actually paid directly out of the Federal Treasury, under acts of Congress, appropriating the same. In other words, Congress approved, ratified, and confirmed *in advance* all these appropriations of money so made by the legislatures of these three States, and in fact, intendment and effect, Congress made these State appropriation acts its own acts, the provisions of which should be duly administered by its own proper officers for the objects and purposes as recited in said State acts. These three Pacific coast States substantially conformed to this legislation of Congress, and strictly followed the same in all particulars, wherein the same was not inhibited by the State constitutions or by the State laws of said States.

A copy of this resolution of Congress, adopted March 19, 1862, was, on July 5, 1863, duly transmitted by Gen. George Wright, commanding the military department of the Pacific, to the governor of California, Hon. Leland Stanford, late Senator from California. The corre-

spondence relating thereto is reported by the Secretary of War on page 183, Senate Ex. Doc. No. 11, Fifty-first Congress, first session, and is as follows, to wit:

HEADQUARTERS DEPARTMENT OF THE PACIFIC,
San Francisco, Cal., July 5, 1863.

His Excellency LELAND STANFORD
Governor, State of California, Sacramento City, Cal.:

SIR: Inclosed herewith I have the honor to lay before your excellency a resolution to authorize the Secretary of War to accept moneys appropriated by any State for the payment of its volunteers, and to apply the same as directed by such State, approved March 19, 1862.

Under the provisions of this resolution Lieut. Col. George H. Ringgold, deputy paymaster-general at my headquarters, will accept any moneys which have been or which may be appropriated for the purpose set forth, and cause it to be applied to the payments designated by the legislative acts.

With great respect, I have the honor to be your excellency's obedient servant,

G. WRIGHT,
Brigadier-General, Commanding.

STATE OF CALIFORNIA, EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT,
Sacramento, July 16, 1863.

Gen. GEORGE WRIGHT,
Commanding Department of the Pacific:

SIR: Your favor of the 5th instant, with resolution relative to appropriations for the relief of volunteers in the several States, is at hand.

By reference to sections 3 and 4 of the act of the legislature approved April 27, 1863 (Statutes of 1863, folio 662), you will observe that the requirements of the law are such as to preclude our State officers from departing from its provisions, and would therefore be impossible to pay out the appropriations *in the manner* indicated by the resolution of Congress.

I am, general, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

LELAND STANFORD,
Governor of California.

The particular method, form, or manner of payment to these volunteers of the specific sums of money so appropriated by these States was not made the essence of these contracts. It is a fair and reasonable construction of said legislation of Congress to say that that which was anticipated was the *substance* rather than the form; that which was requisite being, only, that the moneys so appropriated by said States should in fact be paid to their said volunteers, all of which was done by paying said volunteers upon official muster rolls duly furnished their State adjutants-general by the colonels of these volunteer regiments, by and through which said moneys were paid directly to said volunteers for the uses and purposes recited in said State acts.

If Congress, in enacting its aforesaid legislation of July 27, 1861, March 8, 1862, and March 19, 1862, did not intend to indemnify and reimburse these States the money which they, in the exercise of the wise discretion of their own respective legislatures, should appropriate and cause to be paid to their volunteers serving in the Army of the United States during the war of the rebellion, it may then be very pertinently asked what object did Congress have in enacting such legislation?

It is submitted that these three States fully expected that these appropriations of money so made and advanced through their own legislatures to the United States, and paid to their said volunteers then serving in the Army of the United States as a part of the military establishment on the Pacific coast during the war of the rebellion, should be fully reimbursed to them. In addition to the foregoing these three States

had been urged to make these very appropriations of money by Gen. George Wright, commanding the Department of the Pacific, and by Gen. Irwin McDowell, commanding the Division or Department of California and Nevada, and by Gen. Benjamin Alvord, commanding the Department of Oregon, for the reimbursement of all of which appropriations they relied, not only upon the public exigencies which demanded such appropriations of money on their part, but wherein they rested their action upon the legal and equitable obligations of the United States in all these premises to reimburse the same.

(1) In the recitals contained in said circular letter of the Secretary of State, Hon. William H. Seward, of October 14, 1861, addressed to the governors of the loyal States, prepared, issued, and proclaimed by order of the President of the United States. This order and act of Mr. Secretary Seward were the order and act of the President of the United States, and as such were in fact and in law the order and act of Congress itself, because Congress (12 U. S. Stats., 326) had declared—

> That all the acts, proclamations, and orders of the President of the United States after the 4th of March, 1861, respecting the Army and Navy of the United States, and calling out or relating to the militia or volunteers from the States, are hereby approved and in all respects legalized and made valid to the same extent and with the same effect as if they had been issued and done under the previous express authority and direction of the Congress of the United States.

(2) In the act of Congress of July 27, 1861 (12 U. S. Stats., p. 276), as legislatively construed and explained by Congress itself in its resolution adopted March 8, 1862 (12 U. S. Stats., 615).

(3) In the unrestricted resolution adopted by Congress March 19, 1862 (12 U. S. Stats., 616).

(4) In the official acts of Gen. George Wright, U. S. Army, commanding the military Division of the Pacific, and the similar acts of Gen. Irwin McDowell, U. S. Army, commanding the military Department of California and Nevada, and the similar acts of Gen. Benjamin Alvord, U. S. Army, commanding the Department of Oregon, all of whom, as the highest commanding military officers of these Pacific coast States, duly conferred with the governors thereof, and who jointly agreed upon the manner in which the defenses of said States for the "common defense" should be improved and perfected, and which system of "common defense" so agreed upon was duly adopted by the legislatures of each as contemplated in said circular letter of Mr. Secretary Seward. These commanding generals, not in their own names, but in the names of their highest military commander, to wit, the *commander in chief of the Army*, the President of the United States, all of whose official acts were approved, legalized, and made valid by Congress as if done under previous express authority and direction of Congress.

In addition to the foregoing, these States have ever relied, and do now rely, for a full indemnity and reimbursement herein upon that general comity that has ever heretofore existed between the United States and the several States in all cases wherever or whenever the latter have been made, either expressly or impliedly, the agents of the United States in aiding to maintain the "common defense" during a period of actual war.

There was no war between *these three States* and the Confederate States, but the war of the rebellion was one between the *United States* and the Confederate States.

These war "costs, charges, and expenses" of these Pacific coast States so incurred under State and Federal authority, executive and legislative, were incurred not in defense of said States, separate and apart

from the rest of the States, but were incurred in aiding *the United States to maintain the "common defense,"* and when incurred were authorized by the State legislature of each of said States, moved thereto at the urgent solicitation of the highest executive authorities of the United States, with the approval and at the direction of the President of the United States and by the sanction and indorsement of Congress, theretofore duly expressed in the aforesaid act and resolutions.

In view of these declarations, supported by the aforesaid opinion of the United States Attorney-General in the case of "The State of Vermont *v.* The United States," it is respectfully submitted that all "costs, charges, and expenses" properly incurred by these States when acting in accordance with the acts of their respective legislatures, when aiding the United States to maintain the "common defense," became, constituted, and now are valid charges against the United States, and as such should be duly appropriated for by Congress and paid to these States out of the National Treasury.

Congress, when legislating in these premises, did not undertake to determine in advance for these three States the specific kind or amount of the "costs, charges, and 'expenses' necessary for them to incur to maintain the common defense," nor did Congress authorize the War Department to issue proposals to these States to aid in the suppression of the rebellion provided it should be done by the *lowest possible bidder;* but Congress, confidently relying upon all the loyal States to come to the aid of the United States with men and money when called, left the President, as commander in chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, to fix the number of men for which he should make a requisition to aid the United States during this period of war, and very *properly left the respective States to be the judges and to determine for themselves the kind, character, and extent of the "costs, charges, and expenses" which they deemed necessary to be incurred by them when obeying the proclamations and requisitions for volunteers of the President of the United States and his proper officers* in all these premises.

Specific expenses had to be and were necessarily incurred in all these premises by all these States, and as heretofore duly reported to Congress by the Secretary of War, so that it would seem to ill-become the United States at this late day to raise the question either of consideration, or of necessity, or of cost, or of equivalent value received in any of these premises, under circumstances and amid exigencies as recited in this statement.

As a matter of fact, all moneys so appropriated by the legislatures of these States out of their respective State treasuries were raised by the sale of their State bonds and advanced by these States to the United States, and expended for the uses and purposes of their said volunteers, as declared and recited in these several State acts, to aid the United States to maintain the "common defense" during a period of actual war.

It it self-evident in these cases that this legislation pertaining to the volunteers of these States came jointly from Congress and from these three States, Congress in fact taking the lead, *but the moneys paid out to their volunteers actually came from moneys hired by their own State treasuries exclusively therefor and not otherwise.* The legislatures of these States did not act at any time in any of these premises until the demands therefor and the appeals made by the United States to their respective governors became most urgent and when the public exigen-

cies which justified their action became of a character such as not to permit of any delay whatsoever on the part of the legislatures of said States.

House Report No. 254, Fifty-second Congress, first session, recites the years of diligent and persistent effort which have been made by these States to have these claims intelligently understood, recognized, and paid by Congress, which, finally recognizing their merits, passed the act of June 27, 1882, intended, as was then thought and expected by said States, to provide for the full and final adjudication of all these State war claims.

Legislation by Congress for such adjudication was initiated in the Senate by the introduction of certain Senate resolutions, one of which, Senate Resolution No. 10, was introduced December 12, 1881, by Senator Grover, of Oregon, to provide for these State rebellion war claims of the State of Oregon; and the other, Senate Resolution No. 13, was introduced December 13, 1881, by Senator Fair, of Nevada, to provide for these State rebellion war claims of the State of Nevada, and for both of which the Committee on Military Affairs in the Senate substituted a bill, S. 1673, which was amended in the Senate upon the motion of Senator Miller, of California, so as to provide for these rebellion war claims of the State of California, but when said bill finally passed Congress it included the State war claims of California, Oregon, Nevada, Colorado, Kansas, Nebraska, and Texas, and became the act of June 27, 1882 (22 U. S. Stats., 111).

Hon. Robert T. Lincoln was Secretary of War when this act of June 27, 1882, became a law, under the provisions of which his Department examined and audited the State war claims of the States of Kansas, Colorado, and Nebraska, all of which have been fully paid by the United States.

In a report made January 26, 1884, by Senator Maxey, of Texas, then a member of the Military Committee in the Senate, in reference to certain war claims referred to that committee upon the motion and request of Senator Jones, of Nevada, for the benefit of the people of that State, Mr. Secretary Lincoln, uniting therein with the honorable Third Auditor, declared his opinion to be that said act of June 27, 1882, was broad enough to embrace all proper war claims of Nevada—rebellion war claims of which, as recited in said letter, had theretofore been duly filed with said Third Auditor of the Treasury, and which were there then pending *sub judice*—the question as to the *necessity and cost incurred* by the States named therein having been left exclusively to the honorable Secretary of War to determine under said act, and as so decided by said Third Auditor.

It was in consequence of said opinion of Mr. Secretary Lincoln and of said Third Auditor that Senator Maxey, using said opinions and report as a basis for his action, being directed therein by the unanimous vote of the Senate Committee on Military Affairs, reported to the Senate that no further or additional legislation by Congress was needed in any of the war claims of the State of Nevada; and as a necessary corollary, no further or additional legislation was needed in the similar war claims of the States of California and Oregon, for if said act of June 27, 1882, was broad enough under which these State war claims of Nevada could be examined, it was equally broad to permit the examination of the similar war claims of California and Oregon. Mr. Secretary Lincoln, however, at about the same time duly submitted to Congress a report, that in view of the great labor involved in the proper examination and determination of matters arising under

said act of June 27, 1882, and devolving thereunder upon his Department, relative to the war claims of these States, and recommended that he be duly authorized to appoint a special board of three Army officers to aid him in the examination and adjudication of the State war claims of the States named in said act, he alleging that Congress had imposed upon him special and responsible duties, but had failed to give him a corresponding force to aid him in the execution thereof.

Congress, in compliance with said recommendation and request of Mr. Secretary Lincoln, passed an act on August 4, 1886 (24 U. S. Stats., 217), wherein authority was given the Secretary of War to appoint a board of three Army officers to aid him in the work of examination of the war claims of the several States named in said act of June 27, 1882, and which officers, before entering upon their duties, were required to take and subscribe an oath that they would carefully examine said claims and, to the best of their ability, make a just and impartial statement thereof.

This act of August 4, 1886, is as follows, to wit:

AN ACT for the benefit of the States of Texas, Colorado, Oregon, Nebraska, California, Kansas, and Nevada, and the Territories of Washington and Idaho, and Nevada when a Territory.

* * * * * * *

SEC. 2. The Secretary of War is hereby authorized to detail three Army officers to assist him in examining and reporting upon the claims of the States and Territory named in the acts of June twenty-seventh, eighteen hundred and eighty-two, chapter two hundred and forty-one of the laws of the Forty-seventh Congress, and such officers, before entering upon said duties, shall take and subscribe an oath that they will carefully examine said claims, and that they will, to the best of their ability, make a just and impartial statement thereof as required by said act.

Approved August 4, 1886. (24 U. S. Stats., 217.)

In the meanwhile the Federal administration changed officers, Mr. Secretary Lincoln going out and Mr. Secretary Endicott coming in as Secretary of War; but nothing had been actually done by Mr. Secretary Lincoln in the way of adjudicating said war claims, outside of expressing said opinion as to said act of June 27, 1882, so that when Mr. Secretary Endicott took office he construed for himself said act of June 27, 1882 (22 U. S. Stats., 111), relative to the rebellion war claims of these three States, and he was of opinion, and on February 8, 1887, declared, that it was not broad enough to embrace these State war claims of these States. This information upon being made known to the Senate, that body unanimously adopted a resolution as follows, to wit:

Resolved, That the Secretary of War, through the board of war-claims examiners, appointed under section 2 of the act of Congress entitled "An act for the benefit of the States of Texas, Colorado, Oregon, Nebraska, California, Kansas, and Nevada, and the Territories of Washington and Idaho, and Nevada when a Territory," approved August 4, 1886, be, and is hereby, authorized and directed to examine all accounts, papers, and evidence which heretofore have been, or which hereafter may be, submitted to him in support of the war claims of the States of California, Oregon, and Nevada, and Nevada when a Territory, growing out of the war of the rebellion, and in suppressing Indian hostilities and disturbances during the war of the rebellion, and in guarding the overland mail and emigrant routes during and subsequent to the war of the rebellion, and to ascertain and state what amount of money each of said States, and Nevada when a Territory, actually expended and what obligations they incurred for the purposes aforesaid; whether such expenditures were made or obligations incurred in actual warfare or in recruiting, enlisting, enrolling, organizing, arming, equipping, supplying, clothing, subsisting, drilling, furnishing, transporting, and paying their volunteers, militia, and home guards, and for bounty, extra pay, and relief paid to their volunteers, militia, and home guards, and in preparing their volunteers, militia, and home guards in camp and field to perform military service for the United States.

The Secretary of War is also directed to ascertain what amount of interest has been paid by each of said States, and Nevada when a Territory, on obligations incurred for the purposes above enumerated. The Secretary of War shall report to Congress the amount of money which may be thus ascertained to have been actually paid by each of said States, and Nevada when a Territory, on account of the matters above enumerated, and also the amount of interest actually paid or assumed by each of said States, and Nevada when a Territory, on moneys borrowed for the purposes above enumerated. And the Secretary of War shall also report the circumstances and exigencies under which, and the authority by which, such expenditures were made, and what payments have been made on account thereof by the United States.

In response to this resolution, the honorable Secretary of War, having fully completed, with the aid of said Army board, a thorough and exhaustive official examination of all these war claims of said three States, transmitted in December, 1889, his reports to the Senate in each of these State war claims of California, Oregon, and Nevada, as required by said resolution, and which reports are as follows, to wit, Senate Ex. Docs. Nos. 10, 11, 17, Fifty-first Congress, first session. These reports and the exhibits attached thereto, respectively, are in great detail, and contain a very full history of the important part taken by the Pacific coast States and Territories during the rebellion in defense of the Union, and are in full compliance with said Senate resolution, showing the actual amount of the "costs, charges, and expenses" actually incurred by each of said States, and of Nevada when a Territory, during the war of the rebellion in aid of the United States and the authority, State, Territorial, and national, and also the special circumstances and exigencies under which the expenditures so reported upon by said Secretary and said board therein, respectively, were made.

Under this act of Congress of June 27, 1882, Mr. Secretary Lincoln examined, allowed, and stated the State war claims of the States of Kansas and Nebraska in sums as allowed and stated by him, and which have been fully appropriated by Congress. Mr. Secretary Endicott (with the aid of said Army board, appointed under said act of August 4, 1886) duly examined, audited, allowed, and stated the State war claims of the State of Texas, and of the sums so audited by the Secretary of War Congress appropriated the sum of $927,177.40 in the act entitled:

An Act to provide for certain of the most urgent deficiencies in the appropriations for the service of the Government for the fiscal year ending June the thirtieth, eighteen hundred and eighty-eight, and for other purposes.
Approved March 30, 1888. (25 U. S. Stats., 71.)

And further appropriated the sum of $148,615.97 in the act entitled:

An Act making appropriations to supply deficiencies in the appropriations for the fiscal year ending June the thirtieth, eighteen hundred and ninety, and for prior years, and for other purposes.
Approved September 30, 1890. (26 U. S. Stats., 539.)

Aggregating the sum of $1,175,793.37.

No one doubts but that all said war claims of Texas so examined and audited by the honorable Secretary of War (aided by said Army board) were valid and proper charges, against and should have been paid by, the United States in the exact sums so audited by the Secretary of War, and which were so paid by Congress without any hostile opposition from any quarter as to the *merits* or *amounts of any thereof.*

In order to show the careful, painstaking, and exact manner in which the members of said Army board performed their duties when aiding the Secretary of War in the examination of these claims, attention is especially called to the views expressed in the House of Representatives by several members of the Texas delegation in Congress, to wit, those of Hon. S. W. T. Lanham, Hon. R. Q. Mills, and Hon. J. D. Sayers, at the

date when said Texas State war claims were under consideration in the House during the Fiftieth Congress, first session, wherein the reliability and the exactness of the statements of the board were shown to be in a manner not only perfectly satisfactory to them, but such in a statement and allowance in the said Texas war claims aggregating $927,177.40, the difference between the sums so stated by said board and the sums subsequently appropriated by Congress with which to pay the same amounted only to the sum of $64.90. (*See* p. 2233, Congressional Record, March 16, 1888.)

The first installment of $927,177.40, so paid to the State of Texas in satisfaction of her said State war claims, passed as an item in the *urgent deficiency appropriation act*, approved March 30, 1888.

It is true this Texas war claim, besides being examined by the Secretary of War, was also reexamined in the Treasury Department, but that reexamination was for the purpose simply of verifying the computations in the audit of the Secretary of War, it being the duty of the Secretary of War, under said act of June 27, 1882, as decided by the Treasury Department, to report upon all matters which related to the *necessity for*, and *reasonableness* of, all expenses so incurred by said States, as appears from a letter from the honorable Third Auditor of January 24, 1884, to the honorable Secretary of War, reported by Mr. Secretary Lincoln to Senator Maxey, of Texas, under date of January 26, 1884, in a report as follows, to wit:

WAR DEPARTMENT,
Washington City, January 26, 1884.

SIR: In response to so much of your communication of the 22d ultimo as requests information concerning Senate bill 657, to "authorize the Secretary of the Treasury to adjust and settle the expenses of Indian wars in Nevada," I have the honor to invite your attention to the following report of the Third Auditor of the Treasury, to whom your request was duly referred:

"The State of Nevada has filed in this office abstracts and vouchers for expenses incurred on account of raising volunteers for the United States to aid in suppressing the late rebellion, amounting to $349,697.49, and the expenses on account of her militia in the 'White Pine Indian war' of 1875, $17,650.98; also, expenses of her militia in the 'Elko Indian war' of 1878, amounting to $4,654.64, presented under act of Congress approved June 27, 1882 (22 Statutes, 111, 112).

"These abstracts and vouchers will be sent to your Department for examination and report as soon as they can be stamped, as that statute requires a report from the Secretary of War as to the *necessity for*, and *reasonableness* of, the expenses incurred. This statute is deemed sufficiently broad enough to embrace all proper claims of said State and Territory of Nevada."

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

ROBERT T. LINCOLN,
Secretary of War.

Hon. S. B. MAXEY,
Of Committee on Military Affairs, United States Senate.

In addition to the foregoing it appears, in a report from the War Department addressed to Hon. S. B. Maxey, U. S. Senator from Texas, under date of January 27, 1886, that the Secretary of War, Hon. W. C. Endicott, held that while the title of the act of June 27, 1882, and the wording of the first section thereof would seem to convey the impression that the claims of the States named in said act were to be adjusted by the Secretary of the Treasury, with the aid and assistance of the Secretary of War, *yet, as a matter of fact, the whole duty of examining and auditing said claims was, by section 2 of said act, imposed upon the Secretary of War, leaving the Treasury Department the simple duty of verifying the computations of the audit of the Secretary of War* therein, and as will officially and fully appear in Senate Mis. Doc. No. 54, Forty-ninth Congress, first session, as follows, to wit:

[Senate Mis. Doc. No. 54, Forty-ninth Congress, first session.]

Letter from the Secretary of War to Hon. S. B. Maxey, in relation to the claim of the State of Texas, presented under the act of June 27, 1882.

JANUARY 29, 1886.—Referred to the Committee on Appropriations and ordered to be printed.

WAR DEPARTMENT,
Washington City, January 27, 1886.

SIR: Referring to our recent conversation in regard to the claim of the State of Texas, presented under the act of June 27, 1882 (22 Stats., 111, 112), I have the honor to inform you that the first installment of the claim (amount $671,400.29) came before the Department from the Third Auditor of the Treasury July 9, 1884, and the action then taken in the matter appears in the letter from this Department to Mr. Dorn, dated July 16, 1884, copy herewith. The papers herein mentioned were returned to the agent of the State July 25, 1884. November 2, 1885, the Third Auditor of the Treasury wrote to the Department, transmitting through Mr. W. H. Pope, agent of the State, the papers in the claim, which papers were received here November 17, 1885, and they are now being stamped and marked.

In regard to the subject of the State claims mentioned in said act, I beg to inform you that the great difficulty experienced in disposing of the claim of the State of Kansas, the first one presented thereunder, has caused the Department to delay taking up the other claims pending. While the title of the act and the wording of the first section thereof would seem to convey the impression that the claims were to be adjusted by the Secretary of the Treasury, "with the aid and assistance of the Secretary of War," the whole duty of examining and auditing the claims was, by section 2, imposed upon the Secretary of War, leaving the Treasury Department the simple duty of verifying the computations of the Secretary of War.

The policy thus indicated differed widely from that prescribed in section 236 of the Revised Statutes, that "all claims and demands whatever by the United States, or against them, and all accounts whatever in which the United States are concerned, either as debtors or as creditors, shall be settled and adjusted in the Department of the Treasury," and differs also from the provisions for the adjudication of State claims under the act of July 27, 1861 (12 Stats., p. 276), which were "to be settled upon proper vouchers, to be filed, and passed upon by the proper accounting officers of the Treasury."

The claims arising under the act are said to amount to $10,000,000 (that of Texas is now stated at $1,842,443.78), and the vast labor of examining the papers, pointing out the evidence required to perfect the vouchers and show the necessity of calling out the militia, whose services are charged for, fixing the rate to be allowed on each voucher, and tabulating the same, many thousand in number, must be performed by the Secretary of War, and no provision has been provided by Congress for this laborious work.

Two years were consumed in disposing of the claim of the State of Kansas, and if the same course is to be pursued with the other claims arising under the act, it will be some time before the claim of Texas is reached, that of Nevada being next in order of receipt.

The subject of the claims was brought to the attention of Congress at the last session (*see* report of Secretary of War for 1884, pp. 4, 5, and estimates for 1886 on p. 206 of House Ex. Doc. No. 5, Forty-eighth Congress, second session), and it has again been presented in the Secretary's report for 1885 (pp. 35 and 36). An estimate to defray the cost of examining the claims will be found on p. 225 of House Ex. Doc. No. 5, Forty-ninth Congress, first session.

I inclose draft of a bill which, if enacted, will enable the Department to dispose of the matter.

Copies of the above mentioned reports are inclosed.

Very respectfully,

WM. C. ENDICOTT,
Secretary of War.

Hon. S. B. MAXEY,
United States Senate.

This reexamination by the Treasury Department, to verify the final computations in said audit of the Secretary of War of the Texas war claim, showed, as aforesaid, an error of only $64.50 in a total allowance of $927,177.40, which sum was appropriated by Congress and paid by the United States to the State of Texas.

It is respectfully submitted that all that Congress in any case desires to know, and very properly inquires into in cases like these, is, have the claims which it is requested to pass upon been carefully computed and set forth in an official statement of account signed by the head of a Department or Bureau, whose duty it is to wholly examine and audit the same?

The dignity heretofore given by Congress to examinations not dissimilar to these is shown in the fact that year after year, since 1859, it has included in the regular deficiency appropriation bill appropriations with which to pay the Oregon and Washington Indian war claims in sundry and divers sums of money based exclusively upon *the original authority of a House resolution only*, adopted February 8, 1858, which resolution, reported in House Ex. Doc. No. 11, Thirty-sixth Congress, first session, is as follows, to wit:

[House Ex. Doc. No. 11, Thirty-sixth Congress, first session.]

Report of the Third Auditor of the Treasury, in pursuance of a resolution of the House of Representatives passed February 8, 1858.

FEBRUARY 10, 1860.—Referred to the Committee on Military Affairs and ordered to be printed.

THIRTY-FIFTH CONGRESS, SECOND SESSION,
CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES,
In the House of Representatives, February 8, 1859.

Resolved, That preliminary to the final settlement and adjustment of the claims of the citizens of the Territories of Oregon and Washington for expenses incurred in the years eighteen hundred and fifty-five and eighteen hundred and fifty-six in repelling Indian hostilities, it shall be the duty of the Third Auditor of the Treasury to examine the vouchers and papers now on file in his office, and make a report to the House of Representatives by the first Monday in December next of the amount respectively due to each company and individual engaged in said service, taking the following rules as his guide in ascertaining the amount so due:

1st. He shall recognize no company or individual as entitled to pay, except such as were called into service by the Territorial authorities of Oregon and Washington, or such whose services have been recognized and accepted by said authorities.

2d. He shall allow to the volunteers engaged in said service no higher pay and allowance than were given to officers and soldiers of equal grade at that period in the Army of the United States, including the extra pay of $2 per month given to the troops serving on the Pacific by the act of 1852.

3d. No person either in the military, or in the civil service of the United States, or of said Territories, shall be paid for his services in more than one employment or capacity for the same period of time, and all such double or triple allowances for pay as appears in said accounts shall be rejected.

4th. That in auditing the claims for supplies, transportation, and other services incurred for the maintenance of said volunteers, he is directed to have a due regard to the number of said troops, to their period of service, and to the prices current in the country at the time, and not to report said service beyond the time actually engaged therein, nor to recognize supplies beyond a reasonable approximation to the proportions and descriptions authorized by existing laws and regulations for such troops, taking into consideration the nature and peculiarities of the service.

5th. That all claims of said volunteers for horses, arms, and other property lost or destroyed in said service shall be audited according to the provisions of the act approved March 3d, eighteen hundred and fifty-nine.

Attest:

I. C. ALLEN, *Clerk.*

Attention is here specially called to the fact, disclosed by said Oregon and Washington resolution, that Congress when dealing with the volunteers of Washington and Oregon declared as late as February 8, 1858, that said volunteers should be paid an extra compensation, and in those particular cases the extra compensation was to be the same as provided for in the act of Congress approved August 31, 1852. (10 U. S. Stats., 108.)

The extra compensation of $2 per month as recited in said Oregon and Washington resolution is error—the exact extra compensation to be paid was one-half additional to the regular pay of officers and enlisted men.

Said provision of law by which said extra compensation was to be measured is as follows, to wit:

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, that so much of the act making appropriations for the support of the Army for the year ending the 30th of June, 1851, approved the 28th of September, 1850, as provides extra pay to the commissioned officers and enlisted men of the United States serving in Oregon or California, be, and the same is hereby, continued in force for one year from the first day of March, 1852, and that the provisions of the last mentioned act be, and is hereby, extended to New Mexico during the current year provided for by this section, and that $300,000 be and is appropriated hereby for that purpose: Provided further, That said officers and men shall receive only one-half of the increased amount over the regular pay allowed by law. (10 U. S. Stats., 108.)

Attention is here called to the fact, that in the examination and audit of the said Oregon and Washington Indian War Claims of 1855 and 1856 under the aforesaid House resolution, the Third Auditor was made the sole commissioner to examine the same, and for this extra duty under section 3, act of March 2, 1861, he was paid the sum of $1,000, and the appropriation to the said Oregon and Washington Indian War Claims, made in said act (12 U. S. Stats., 198), were based on the allowance that he, as such commissioner, made and reported to the House, February 8, 1859, under said resolution, and as printed in House Ex. Doc. No. 11, Thirty-sixth Congress, first session.

The examination of the war claims of the State of Texas were limited, as to time, to the examination of claims for the expenses incurred and arising in the said State subsequent to October 20, 1865, and were confined, as to character, exclusively to claims for expenses by her incurred for or on account of military defense against Mexican raids, against Mexican invasions, and against Indian hostilities only. Whereas, in the cases of these three States said act of June 27, 1882, was intended to include and cover, and did include and cover all military expenses of every nature, beginning April 15, 1861, incident upon calling into the field their volunteers, beginning at the date of the commencement of the rebellion (April 15, 1861), and was not confined to claims for reimbursement of expenses incurred for defense against Indian hostilities only, but covered, and was intended to cover, all expenses of the rebellion or for repelling invasions, coming from any source whence they may, but included also those of Indian hostilities.

If there were any doubts as to the purposes and intentions of Congress as to the seope of said act of June 27, 1882, or as to the character of the claims to be examined thereunder, the expenses for which Congress intended to reimburse said States, these doubts would be removed by considering:

(1) The declarations recited in the fifth section of said act of June 27, 1882, in words as follows, to wit:

SEC. 5. That any military services performed and expenditures on account thereof incurred during the Territorial organization of Nevada, and paid for or assumed by either said Territory or said State of Nevada, shall be also included, and examined and reported to Congress in the same manner as like service and expenditures shall be examined and reported for the State of Nevada.

(2) By considering the views submitted May 12, 1882, on the bill S. 1673 by the Military Committee in the Senate, in Senate Report No. 575, Forty-seventh Congress, first session, and as reappears in Senate

Report No. 644, Fifty-first Congress, first sesion. This Senate bill S. 1673 finally became the act of June 27, 1882, and an extract from said report made thereon is in words as follows, to wit:

The circumstances under which the expenditures provided for in this bill were made by these States being exceptional, and their reimbursement not being provided for by any existing law, general or special, prior to June 27, 1882, Senator Grover, of Oregon, on December 12, 1881, introduced Senate joint resolution No. 10, and Senator Fair, of Nevada, on December 13, 1881, introduced Senate joint resolution No. 13, providing for the equitable adjustment of these State war claims of Oregon and Nevada, which resolutions were referred to the Senate Committee on Military Affairs.

These two Senate joint resolutions, Nos. 10 and 13, Fortieth Congress, first session, are as follows, to wit:

[S. R. 10., Forty-seventh Congress, first session.

JOINT RESOLUTION to authorize the Secretary of War to ascertain and report to Congress the amount of money expended and indebtedness assumed by the State of Oregon in repelling invasions, suppressing insurrections and Indian hostilities, enforcing the laws, and protecting the public property.

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the Secretary of War be, and he is hereby, authorized and directed to cause to be examined and adjusted all the accounts of the State of Oregon against the United States for money expended and indebtedness assumed in organizing, arming, equipping, supplying clothing, subsisting, transporting, and paying either the volunteer or militia forces, or both, of said State called into active service by the governor thereof after the fifteenth day of April, eighteen hundred and sixty-one, to aid in repelling invasions, suppressing insurrections and Indian hostilities, enforcing the laws, and protecting the public property in said State and upon its borders, except during the Modoc war.

SEC. 2. That the Secretary of War shall also examine and adjust the accounts of the State of *Oregon* for all other expenses necessarily incurred on account of said forces having been called into active service as herein mentioned, including the claims assumed or paid by said State to encourage enlistments, and for horses and any other property lost or destroyed while in the line of duty by said forces: *Provided,* That in order to enable the Secretary of War to fully comply with the provisions of this act there shall be filed in the War Department by the governor of said State, or a duly authorized agent, an abstract accompanied with proper certified copies of vouchers or such other proof as may be required by said Secretary, showing the amount of all such expenditures and indebtedness, and the purposes for which the same were made.

SEC. 3. That the Secretary of War shall report in writing to Congress, at the earliest practicable date, for final action, the results of such examination and adjustment, together with the amounts which he may find to have been properly expended for the purposes aforesaid.

[S. R. 13, Forty-seventh Congress, first session.]

JOINT RESOLUTION to authorize the Secretary of War to ascertain and report to Congress the amount of money expended and indebtedness assumed by the State of Nevada in repelling invasions, suppressing insurrection and Indian hostilities, enforcing the laws, and protecting public property.

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the Secretary of War be, and he is hereby, authorized and directed to cause to be examined and adjusted all the accounts of the State of Nevada against the United States for money expended and indebtedness assumed in organizing, arming, equipping, supplying clothing, subsisting, transporting, and paying either the volunteers or militia, or both, of the late Territory of Nevada and of the State of Nevada, called into active service by the governor of either thereof after the fifteenth day of April, eighteen hundred and sixty-one, to aid in repelling invasions, suppress insurrections and Indian hostilities, enforcing the laws, and protecting the public property in said Territory and said State and upon the borders of the same.

SEC. 2. That the Secretary of War shall also examine and adjust the accounts of the late Territory of Nevada and of the State of Nevada for all other expenses necessarily incurred on account of said forces having been called into active service as herein mentioned, including the claims assumed or paid by said Territory and said

State, to encourage enlistments, and for horses and other property lost or destroyed while in the line of duty of said forces: *Provided*, That in order to enable the Secretary of War to fully comply with the provisions of this act, there shall be filed in the War Department by the governor of Nevada, or a duly authorized agent, an abstract accompanied with proper certified copies of vouchers or such other proof as may be required by said Secretary, showing the amount of all such expenditures and indebtedness, and the purposes for which the same were made.

SEC. 3. That the Secretary of War shall report in writing to Congress, at the earliest practicable date, for final action, the results of such examinations and adjustment, together with the amounts which he may find to have been properly expended for the purpose aforesaid.

As recited in said Senate Report No. 644 (Fifty-first Congress, first session), that committee (to wit, Senate Committee on Military Affairs), instead of reporting back said joint resolution, reported back, May 12, 1882, in lieu thereof, a substitute in the form of a bill, to wit, Senate 1673, Forty-seventh Congress, first session, providing for the payment of certain war claims, to wit, those only of Texas, Oregon, and Nevada, and of the Territories of Idaho and Washington, and which bill, after having been amended in the Senate so as to include the State war claims of Colorado, Nebraska, and California, and amended in the House so as to include the State war claims of Kansas, finally resulted in the passage of the act approved June 27, 1882. (22 U. S. Stats., 111.)

It was then, no doubt, the intention of Congress to provide for the full indemnity and reimbursement of all moneys which California, Oregon, and Nevada, and Nevada when a Territory, had actually expended during the war of the rebellion on account of the several matters recited in Senate bill No. 1295, Fifty-third Congress, second session. Senate bill No. 1673, Forty-seventh Congress, first session, was accompanied by a report (Senate No. 575, Forty-seventh Congress, first session) made by Senator Grover, May 12, 1882, which renders said intention of Congress quite evident.

The Senate Committee on Military Affairs did not at that time make any report in relation to any of the State war claims of the State of California, but when this substitute bill (Senate 1673, Forty-seventh Congress, first session), reported from that committee, was under consideration in the Senate, Senator Miller, of California, called attention to the fact that California had similar war claims unprovided for, and on his motion this bill (Senate 1673, Forty-seventh Congress, first session) was amended in the Senate as to include the State war claims of the State of California. It it alleged by California, Oregon, and Nevada that this act of June 27, 1882, which they believed was intended by Congress to be an act for their relief and benefit and an equitable statute to be liberally construed in order to pay to these three States that indemnity "which had been so guaranteed by its aforesaid legislation, has been found to be an act 'so well and carefully and closely guarded by restrictions'" that, when construed by those who have been called upon to execute it, has proven to be completely inoperative as an equitable relief measure, so much so as to amount to a practical denial of justice so far as the present State war claims of these States now provided for in these bills were or are concerned.

Said report is as follows, to wit:

[Senate Report No. 575, Forty-seventh Congress, first session.]

MAY 12, 1882.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. GROVER, from the Committee on Military Affairs, submitted the following report, to accompany bill S. 1673:

The Committee on Military Affairs, to whom were referred Senate bill 1144 and

Senate joint resolutions 10 and 13, "to authorize an examination and adjustment of the claims of the States of Kansas, Nevada, Oregon, and Texas, and of the Territories of Idaho and Washington, for repelling invasions and suppressing insurrection and Indian hostilities therein," submitted the following report:

Oregon.—It appears by the report of the Adjutant-General U. S. Army of April 3, 1882, that one regiment of cavalry, one regiment of infantry, and one independent company of cavalry were raised in the State of Oregon during the late war of the rebellion, and that the expenses incident thereto have never been reimbursed said State by the United States; and that the claims therefor have never been heretofore presented by said State for audit and payment by the United States, as per report of the Secretary of War of April 15, 1882, and of the Third Auditor of the Treasury of April 8, 1882. Under section 3489 of the Revised Statutes, the claim for expenditures so incurred by said State can not now be presented for audit and payment without legislation by Congress. In addition thereto there are some unadjusted claims of said State growing out of the Bannock and Umatilla Indian hostilities therein in 1877 and 1878, evidenced by a communication of the Secretary of War of date last aforesaid, and some unadjusted balances pertaining to the Modoc war, not presented for audit to Gen. James A. Hardie, approximating the sum of $5,000.

Nevada.—It appears by the report of the Adjutant-General U. S. Army, of February 25, 1882, that one regiment of cavalry and one battalion of infantry were raised in the late Territory of Nevada during the late war of the rebellion, and that the expenses of raising, organizing, and placing in the field said forces were never paid by said Territory, but were assumed and paid by the State of Nevada, and that none of said expenses so incurred by said Territory, and assumed and paid by said State, have never been reimbursed the State of Nevada by the United States, and that no claims therefor have ever been heretofore presented by either said Territory or said State for audit and payment by the United States. Under section 3489 of the Revised Statutes, hereinbefore referred to, the payments of these claims is barred by limitation.

These forces were raised to guard the overland mail route and emigrant road to California, east of Carson City, and to do other military service in Nevada, and were called out by the governor of the late Territory of Nevada upon requisitions therefor by the commanding general of the Department of the Pacific, and under authority of the War Department, as appears by copies of official correspondence furnished to your committee by the Secretary of War and the general commanding the Division of the Pacific; and it further appears that there are some unadjusted claims of the State of Nevada for expenses growing out of the so-called White River Indian war of 1875, and aggregating $17,650.98, and of the so-called Elko Indian war of 1878 therein, and aggregating $4,654.64, and which sums, it appears by the official statements of the comptroller of said State of Nevada, were expended and paid out of the treasury of said State.

Texas.—The unadjusted claims of the State of Texas provided for by this bill are those which accrued subsequent to October 14, 1865. These have been heretofore the subject-matter of much correspondence between the State authorities of Texas and the authorities of the United States, and have several times received the partial consideration of both branches of Congress, but without reaching any finality, never having been audited or fully examined, and consequently no payment on account thereof has been made.

These claims are referred to in Senate Ex. Doc. No. 74, second session, Forty-sixth Congress, and in the executive documents therein cited.

It appears by the official correspondence exhibited in the document referred to, and copies of official correspondence from the State authorities of Texas, and submitted to your committee, that the expenses for which the State of Texas claims reimbursement were incurred by the authorities thereof under its laws, and for the proper defense of the frontiers of said State against the attacks of numerous bands of Indians and Mexican marauders. These claims approximate the sum of $1,027,375.67, and were incurred between October 14, 1865, and August 31, 1877.

Washington and Idaho.—The volunteer troops in Washington and Idaho were in the field during Indian hostilities in 1877 and 1878, in said Territories, by orders of the local authorities thereof. While these volunteers were not mustered into the regular service of the U. S. Army, they were attached to the command of U. S. troops in the Department of the Columbia, and acted with said troops, rendering valuable and faithful services during said wars, under the orders and immediate command of officers of the regular Army of the United States, as appears by copies of orders in the hands of your committee.

The obligation of the General Government to defend each State is acknowledged to be included in the constitutional obligation to maintain the "common defense," by a long series of acts of Congress making appropriations to cover the expenses of States and Territories of the Union which have raised troops and have incurred liabilities in defending themselves against Indian hostilities and other disturbances.

The bill herewith reported provides for an examination of the claims and accounts of the States and Territories therein named by the Secretary of the Treasury, acting in connection with the Secretary of War, and that they report the amount of money necessarily expended and indebtedness properly assumed in organizing, supplying and sustaining volunteers and militia called into active service by each of them in repelling invasions and suppressing Indian hostilities therein, during the periods named.

This bill is carefully guarded against the assumption by the United States of unnecessary liabilities, and fixes the pay of volunteers and militia of these several States and Territories on the basis of the pay of regular troops.

Your committee therefore report the present original bill as a substitute for Senate bill 1144 and Senate joint resolutions 10 and 13, which heretofore have been under consideration by said committee, having the same objects as provided for by this bill, and recommend its passage.

The foregoing recitals clearly and fully show, so far as Oregon and Nevada were concerned, that said Report No. 575 and said Senate bill No. 1673, and said Military Committee in the first session of the Forty-seventh Congress dealt with both State rebellion war claims and State Indian war claims of the States of Oregon and Nevada and the Territory of Nevada, and when Senator Miller, of California, suggested that California had State war claims similar to those of Oregon and Nevada, said bill S. 1673 was amended upon his motion so as to also include the State rebellion war claims and the State Indian war claims of that State.

(3) By considering the views expressed by Hon. R. Q. Mills, now the junior Senator from Texas, of the purposes and intentions of said act of Congress of June 27, 1882, which were duly emphasized by his remarks thereon in the House on the date when said Texas war claim was then and there pending *sub judice* (which remarks with those submitted at the same time by Mr. Lanham and by Mr. Sayers of Texas on this same bill are printed on pp. 2126 to 2265, Congressional Record, Fiftieth Congress, first session). On that occasion Hon. R. Q. Mills declared as follows, to wit:

Mr. MILLS. Mr. Chairman, it might have been better if this claim had been held back and placed upon the regular deficiency bill. Perhaps there would have been no objection raised on either side of the House if that course had been adopted with reference to it. But the claim is now before the House, on a favorable report from the Committee on Appropriations, and it is here for action. Being before us, I do not want to see a vote against it to-day because of the fact that it has not been held back to give a red-tape examination to it.

This is an old, familiar friend of mine. I am thoroughly acquainted with it in all of its details. I introduced bills, as did my colleagues upon this floor, years ago to pay the State of Texas the money which had been expended by that State in doing that which the Government of the United States ought to have done for her. I remember the time when the Representatives from Kansas, Nevada, and Nebraska and ourselves often met together for conference and with a view to helping each other to get the Congress of the United States to do justice to our people in recognizing these claims which had been standing so long.

We united our efforts and aided in the passage of the law of 1882. That law was passed for the purpose of providing a settlement for these claims, and under it all of the claims of this class were submitted, with the evidence to substantiate them, to a board of Army officers. They have been thoroughly, patiently, exhaustively examined through a careful process of inspection covering a long period of time, and have all been reported to Congress.

There is no objection made to the payment of any of this class of claims upon the judgment of this board of officers, indorsed as it has been by the Treasury Department, except with regard to the claim of Texas; and the opposition, Mr. Chairman, is as unjust to the State of Texas as it would have been to the other States.

There is no gentleman who has challenged or will challenge the statement that not a single item has been questioned or can be pointed out in which a wrong judgment has been made by this board of officers.

But, sir, this appeal that is made here is all for delay. They say the case ought to have waited longer—as if it had not waited long enough already—and that it should have gone through some further and more patient examination; but they have not

been able to point to a single item of all the items making up this sum of $927,000 which is not justly due to my State—not one of them.

Our claim is a little larger than the claim of the State of Kansas, because Kansas had a much smaller frontier, and had to guard only against the Indians, whereas we had both the Indians and the Mexicans. We had a border as long on the northern frontier of the State as the whole frontier line of the State of Kansas, and in addition to that we had all of that vast line from the thirty-second parallel of north latitude down to the Gulf of Mexico, making more than a thousand miles in addition. That is the reason why the claim of the State of Texas is larger. (Congressional Record, March 17, 1888, p. 2265.)

There is a consensus of opinion of the Treasury and War Departments as to the duties which were to be performed under said act of Congress of June 27, 1882, by the Secretary of War and by the Secretary of the Treasury, respectively, in the adjudication of the claims of the States named in said act, which were substantially to this effect, to wit: That the Secretary of War was to pass upon and decide as to the *necessity* for any expenses of any kind, and as to the *reasonableness* of all expenses so incurred by said States, for the "common defense;" and in addition thereto was to wholly examine all the claims of said States for all reimbursements provided to be paid in said act, and to wholly audit all the claims for any reimbursement to be made to any of said States under said act, and that the only duty of the honorable Secretary of the Treasury under said act was to verify the computations so made by the Secretary of War.

In the cases of the rebellion war claims of California, Oregon, and Nevada, it now fully appears that the honorable Secretary of War has thoroughly, patiently, carefully, and exhaustively examined all said rebellion war claims, rejecting any that appeared doubtful, and in so doing threw out or suspended in the case of California alone claims that aggregated $468,976.54, which had been paid by that State, and in the case of Oregon threw out or suspended claims which aggregated the sum of $21,118.73.

The Secretary of War has certified in an official itemized statement of account as the result of an exact computation, the true amount that should be paid by the United States, to each of these States, on account of the moneys by them respectively expended as "costs, charges, and expenses" to aid the United States to maintain the "common defense" on the Pacific coast during the war of the rebellion.

If therefore Congress will accord to the computations of the Secretary of War, Hon. Redfield Proctor, in these cases the same degree of confidence which it accorded to similar computations of the Secretary of War, Hon. W. C. Endicott, in the case of the State war claims of the State of Texas, then at this time it will make provision to pay the rebellion war claims of these three States in the sums as computed by the Secretary of War, Hon. Redfield Proctor, and by him so heretofore duly reported to the Senate.

The reliance that should be placed on this examination and audit by the Secretary of War of these claims of these three States may be correctly ascertained as aforesaid from the remarks in the House in support of said Texas war claims made by the distinguished Representative from Texas, now the chairman of the House Committee on Appropriations, Hon. J. D. Sayers, substantially to the effect that said computations in the Texas war claims were almost absolutely perfect (an error of only $64.50 occurring in an allowance of $927,177.40), *de minimis lex non curat.*

These claims were provided for in the same act which provided for said Texas war claims, and have had substantially a similar degree of

examination by the Secretary of War, and are entitled to a similar degree of consideration by Congress.

In the deficiency appropriation bill which passed the Senate March 3, 1891, provision to pay some of these State war claims of these three States was included by the Senate without a single dissenting vote, after an explanation in support thereof had been made to the Senate in words as follows, to wit:

Mr. STEWART. I offer the amendment which I send to the desk.

The VICE-PRESIDENT. The amendment will be stated.

The CHIEF CLERK. On page 38, line 5, after the word "dollars," it is proposed to insert:

To reimburse the States of California, Oregon, and Nevada for moneys by them expended in the suppression of the rebellion, under the act of Congress approved July 27, 1861, and acts amendatory thereof and supplementary thereto, being sums of money shown by the reports of the Secretary of War to have been paid by said States in the suppression of the rebellion:

To the State of California the sum of $2,451,369.56.

To the State of Oregon the sum of $224,526.53.

To the State of Nevada the sum of $404,040.70.

Mr. STEWART. Mr. President, there is no time to enter at length into an explanation of this claim. I would state, however, that during the war the States named in this amendment furnished 18,715 troops, who were enlisted in the U. S. Army and served on the Pacific coast. At the time the war broke out the soldiers who were stationed there were called home, and it became necessary to raise troops in those States. The Secretary of War, the President, and other officials urged these States to raise the troops, as they could not be sent from the East. These States, immediately after the rebellion closed, attempted to obtain compensation. It was a long time before they could get the accounts examined.

Finally, it was developed that these States had made an additional allowance beyond what was made in the Atlantic States. By two acts passed in 1850 a different allowance was made for troops serving on the Pacific coast. Those who were enlisted there were paid at a different rate. These acts were repealed in 1861. When it was attempted to raise troops on the Pacific coast it was found necessary to continue the old compensation on account of the very high price of living. Soldiers who had families or other obligations could not possibly serve at the reduced rates.

These States made an allowance, not up to what the Government had been in the habit of allowing, but considerably less, not more than one-fourth probably of the Government allowance. The transportation alone of the troops, without the subsistence that would have been allowed if they had been taken from New York under the regulations which had prevailed since 1850, would have amounted to $5,483,385. If the extra pay had been counted in it would have ranged something over $10,000,000, perhaps $15,000,000. If the regular United States pay which had been allowed from 1850 up to 1861, when the war broke out, had been paid these men, it would have amounted—I have not figured it out exactly—to some $10,000,000 or $15,000,000. The transportation alone would have been nearly $5,500,000.

In order that this question might be examined, several acts of Congress were passed, and a board of war claims commissioners was organized to investigate such claims. Under that war claims commission several States that came in on account of Indian depredations—Kansas, Nebraska, Nevada, California, and Texas—were paid in the aggregate $1,297,850. Texas received of that sum $927,177.40, and since that it has received and additional sum of $148,615.97.

The question of the allowance of additional pay, which has been so long urged, still remains. The Senate, after investigating it, passed a resolution to have the claims examined, so as to ascertain the exact amount that was paid. Under that resolution the war claims examiners reduced the amount stated. With great labor they went through all the papers and examined all the vouchers. The result is the amendment which I offer. There is no doubt about the equity of the case.

THE VICE-PRESIDENT. The question is on the amendment of the Senator from Nevada.

The amendment was agreed to.

(*See* p. 4116, Congressional Record, March 5, 1891.)

But this amendment was not retained in said bill by the conferees for reasons recited in the debate which took place thereon in the Senate, as follows, to wit:

Mr. STEWART. Mr. President, if I understand the amendments that have been agreed to and rejected, the amendment of the Senate putting in the French spolia-

tion claims has been agreed to, and these State claims and the payment to the railroads for carrying the mails have been rejected.

Now, the position of the bill seems to be that the State claims of California, Oregon, and Nevada for money expended in the suppression of the rebellion, after all the other States have been paid, are rejected; that the judgments of the Supreme Court on the claims for the carrying of the mails, the judgment already declared that the United States is liable and owes the money and should pay it, have been rejected.

The French spoliation claims, in which there is no judgment, which is simply a finding under a law that declares that such findings shall not in any way commit the United States to the payment of the claims, and the finding of the court under such a law which has not been examined by the Committee on Claims, as the chairman stated that it had not been fully examined, but they had gone far enough to ascertain that a portion of them was unsatisfactory, and claims one hundred years old standing in that way, to a very large amount, are put into the bill.

Now, the system which produces such legislation certainly must be very defective. These appropriation bills come in and the main part of the legislation of Congress is forced into two or three days and nights, and investigation and deliberation under the pressure are denied, because we are threatened with an extra session of Congress, and we must take what the House says we shall take or we must take the consequences of an extra session. That alternative is constantly presented, and while judgments of courts binding upon the Government are ignored, while State claims cannot get consideration and are to be abandoned after consideration, claims that do not have a standing by reason of a judgment of a court or the investigation of a committee are allowed to pass.

I refer to the validity of these particular claims. I am aware that committees have held from time to time that there were equities in these French spoliation claims, but before they are paid it should be ascertained by some committee that each item that is appropriated goes to a legitimate claimant, so that when it has been neglected one hundred years we may investigate it and ascertain that the money goes to the parties entitled to it. This has not been done. I would not object to the payment of any of these claims if it were found that there was money due to a particular individual, but it comes in without that investigation, and it is to be passed in the last hours of the session, while the judgments of courts and claims of States are unceremoniously ignored. Now it goes back to the committee for further reference.

It is a serious responsibility upon a Senator who feels that he must do his duty here as to what he ought to do under such circumstances, whether he must continue from year to year to pass bills under the threat of an extra session, to which we can not give our assent conscientiously, and must stay here year after year and see legitimate claims ignored. The question is whether it is our duty to submit to it. It is a matter of grave consideration. I will not now determine what I shall do, but it seems to me if legislation can not be carried on more orderly than this it is the duty of the Senate to defeat the important bills and call a halt and rearrange the mode of doing business.

I think the Senate is, in a great measure, to blame in this matter. The Senate has the same power to originate appropriation bills that the House has. The House has got in the habit, and it goes on every season, and it always will, to send these bills here at the last moment so that they can not be considered by the Senate. I think the Senate is derelict in its duty if it does not commence early in the session to inaugurate bills and give time for consideration, that we may have our legislation in order, so that at the end of the session every Senator will not leave the Senate Chamber conscious that he has been a party to a very great wrong which the Congress of the United States allows because he did not have time to correct it.

The whole legislation of Congress has to be done in two or three nights, when it must be done hurriedly—done when jobs of all kinds can go through. Each Senator has to go home and explain it, and has to submit to it, that he can not reach it; that he could not discuss it because he was threatened with an extra session or the failure of the passage of the necessary bills to carry on the Government. It is a matter of grave consideration whether it is not my duty here to do all in my power to defeat this bill. Mr. President, I have said all I desire at this time. I have made these remarks, and I may make more before the bill becomes a law, but that is all I shall say at this time.

Mr. HALE. Mr. President, I desire to say only a word in reply to the Senator from Nevada. The instructions given to the committee on the part of the House do not apply to the State claims, but only to the railroad claims, so that in the conference which will immediately ensue the Senate conferees will not find the conference embarrassed by any action of the House aside from those claims. The committee of conference will be in session immediately, and I only repeat what I have said before, that it will endeavor to secure as much as possible of the action of the Senate upon this bill.

I want to say to the Senator from Nevada—I know that he is a reasonable man upon all these subjects—that the Senate is committed to these State claims by vote, by sentiment, and it is only a question of time when they will pass.

The present bill, aside from the matters which have been discussed, contains upon it an appropriation for pensions for soldiers amounting to $28,000,000. I do not suppose there is a Senator here who, whatever may be his feeling about other matters in the bill, would desire to wreck the bill and thereby leave the soldiers without money for the payment of their pensions during the remainder of the year. Calling the attention of the Senator to this, I leave the subject now, and hope to be able to report from the conference committee in a very short time.

Mr. CHANDLER. I ask the Senator how much is appropriated in the bill for pensions.

Mr. HALE. The appropriations for pensions are found upon page 5——

Mr. EDMUNDS. What is the total amount?

Mr. HALE. Amounting to $28,678,332.89. This money is needed at once. Without it the payments between now and June 30, of course, will cease.

DEFICIENCY APPROPRIATION BILL.

Mr. HALE submitted the following report:

The committee of conference on the disagreeing votes of the two Houses on certain amendments of the Senate to the bill (H. R. 13658) making appropriations to supply deficiencies in the appropriations for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1891, and for prior years, and for other purposes, having met, after full and free conference have agreed to recommend and do recommend to their respective Houses as follows:

That the Senate recede from its amendments numbered 22, 30, 59, 60, 84, 96, 98, 101, 103, and 104.

That the House recede from its disagreement to the amendment of the Senate, numbered 85, with an amendment as follows: In lieu of the matter proposed to be inserted by said amendment insert:

"For clerks to Committees on Patents, Coast Defenses, and Engrossed Bills, from March 4 to July 1, 1891, at the rate of $2,200 per annum each."

EUGENE HALE,
W. B. ALLISON,
F. M. COCKRELL,
Managers on the part of the Senate.
J. G. CANNON,
S. R. PETERS,
W. C. P. BRECKINRIDGE,
Managers on the part of the House.

Mr. STEWART. I should like to ask what disposition has been made of the amendments that were disagreed to.

Mr. HALE. The Senate conferees found the conferees on the part of the House entirely firm in their resistance, and declined to yield; so that it became a question of giving up the Senate amendments or giving up the bill, and mainly in consideration of the large appropriation in the bill for the pensioners, amounting to $28,000,000, the conferees on the part of the Senate receded from the amendments and they are out of the bill.

Mr. STEWART. Mr. President, this illustrates in a very glaring form the mode of doing business between the two Houses. Appropriation bills involving more money than were ever appropriated in any one session, in time of peace at least, can not be said to have been considered by the Senate. They nearly all came here in a bunch in the last two or three days and the Senate has been compelled to work night and day. Many Senators were unable to stay here on account of their health. Old men feeble men, and men in ill health were unable to stay here and criticise these bills. They have been in the hands of a very few men who were overworked and could not give to them the attention they required.

They are not bills passed by the deliberation of this body, and it will be a marvel if there are not many things in these bills that Senators will regret and will be called upon to explain, and they will be compelled to make the explanation that there was no opportunity for any investigation of the great bulk of these bills, that it would have involved an extra session of Congress, which is regarded by the country as a calamity. We have been passing these bills under the shade of that calamity and under that threat, sitting here night and day. A large portion of the time, there could not be a quorum. Those who were engaged on conference were necessarily in their committee rooms, and what has been done is unknown to the majority of the Senate.

In this bill judgments of courts, of the Supreme Court, binding legal obligations of the Government, have been rejected. Claims of States of undoubted validity that have been long delayed have been rejected, and claims——

Mr. MORGAN. Will the Senator from Nevada allow me to ask him a question? Does the Senator desire to defeat the bill?

Mr. STEWART. I am not going to defeat the bill. I shall only occupy a few moments more, but I want to call attention to the situation. I am going to sit down in a moment. I say claims that have not the investigation or indorsement of the committee, involving millions, are in this bill. I do not complain of the conferees of the House; I do not complain of the conferees on the part of the Senate. They have labored night and day. It is a marvel to me that they have been able to perform the labor they have. They have done the best they could, and the result is that we have made these enormous appropriations of which the Senate, although responsible legally, can not be held responsible individually or morally.

I call attention to this matter now for the purpose of suggesting the necessity of earlier action on the appropriation bills and the further necessity of the Senate inaugurating appropriation bills, so that they can have them in time, that they can consider them properly, and that we can have legislation that we will understand, and that the country will understand, and not a great mass of material, involving millions and hundreds of millions that we know nothing of, forced through at the end of a session with the old excuse that we could not reach it because we had to submit and pass the bills to avoid an extra session. The Government must be carried on, I recognize that; and I do not propose to block the wheels of Government, but I appeal to Senators that in the future this work on appropriation bills shall be begun in time, and that they may be properly considered.

The PRESIDENT *pro tempore*. The question is on concurring in the conference report.

The report was concurred in.

(*See* p. 4223, Congressional Record, March 6, 1891.)

No valid reason is known to exist why Congress should not at this time authorize the payment of these State war claims of these three Pacific Coast States, and not compel them to keep knocking at its doors as petitioners, session after session, demanding payment of the same.

The volunteers of these States at the date when they were called, promptly responded to all requisitions made by the proper United States authorities upon their respective States, none waiting to be drafted or otherwise pressed into the military service of the United States, but all coming with alacrity when called.

The thorough, patient, careful, and exhaustive reports submitted to the Senate by the Secretary of War, Hon. Redfield Proctor, upon the work of the examination of the State war claims of these three States show some of the difficulties met and overcome by them when aiding the United States in these premises, and which, recited in the language of said Secretary in Senate Ex. Docs. Nos. 10,11, and 17, Fifty-first Congress, first session, are as follows, to wit:

NEVADA.—EXTRA MONTHLY PAY TO HER STATE VOLUNTEERS—LIABILITIES ASSUMED.

[Senate Ex. Doc. No. 10, Fifty-first Congress, first session, p. 7.]

It appears from the affidavit of the State controller (herewith, marked Exhibit No. 2) that liabilities to the amount of $1,153.75 were assumed by the State of Nevada as successor to the Territory of Nevada on account of "costs, charges, and expenses for monthly pay to volunteers and military forces in the Territory and State of Nevada in the service of the United States," and that State warrants fully covering such liabilities were duly issued. It is also shown in the affidavit that of said warrants two for the sums of $11.33 and $8.50, respectively, have been paid, such payment reducing said liabilities to $1,133.92.

The circumstances and exigencies under which the Nevada legislature allowed this extra compensation to its citizens serving as volunteers in the U. S. Army are believed to have been substantially the same as those that impelled the legislatures of California and Oregon to a similar course of action for the relief of the contingent of troops raised in each of these States. Prices of commodities of every kind were extravagantly high during the war period in Nevada, which depended for the transportation of its supplies upon wagon roads across mountain ranges that were impassable for six months of every year; and at certain times, at least during the same period the rich yield of newly-opened mines produced an extraordinary demand for

labor, largely increasing wages and salaries. These high prices of commodities and services were coexistent with, though in their causes independent of the depreciation of the Treasury notes, which did not pass current in that section of the country, though accepted through necessity by the troops serving there; and it is safe to say that in Nevada, as in California and Oregon, the soldier could buy no more with a gold dollar than could the soldier serving in the Eastern States with the greenback or paper dollar.

On the whole, therefore, we are decided in the conviction that in granting them this extra compensation the legislature was mainly instigated by a desire to do a plain act of justice to the U. S. volunteers raised in the State and performing an arduous frontier service, by placing them on the same footing as regards compensation, with the great mass of the officers and soldiers of the U. S. Army, serving east of the Rocky Mountains. It is true that the seven companies of infantry that were called for on October 19, 1864, had not been organized; and that on March 8, 1865, three days before the approval of the State law above noticed, the commanding general Department of the Pacific wrote as follows from his headquarters at San Francisco to the governor of Nevada (*see* p. 287, Senate Ex. Doc. 70, Fiftieth Congress, second session):

"What progress is making in recruiting the Nevada volunteers? I will need them for the protection of the State, and trust that you may meet with success in your efforts to raise them. I hope the legislature may assist you by some such means as have been adopted by California and Oregon."

But the fact remains that the declared purpose of the monthly allowance was to give a compensation to the Nevada Volunteers (see section 1 of the act last referred to), and that when measured by the current prices of the country in which they were serving, their compensation from all sources did not exceed, if indeed it was equal to, the value of the money received as pay by the troops stationed elsewhere, i. e., outside of the Department of the Pacific.

CALIFORNIA.—Extra Pay to Enlisted Men as her State Volunteers.

[Senate Ex. Doc. No. 11, Fifty-first Congress, first session, p. 23.]

By an act approved April 27, 1863, the legislature appropriated and set apart "as a soldiers' relief fund" the sum of $600,000, from which every enlisted soldier of the companies of California volunteers raised or thereafter to be raised for the service of the United States was to be paid, in addition to the pay and allowances granted him by the United States, a "compensation" of $5 per month from the time of his enlistment to the time of his discharge. Drafted men, substitutes for drafted men, soldiers dishonorably discharged or discharged for disability existing at time of enlistment, were not to share in the benefits of the act, and except in cases of married men having families dependent upon them for support, payment was not to be made until after discharge. Seven per cent interest-bearing bonds to the amount of $600,000, in sums of $500, with coupons for interest attached to each bond, were authorized to be issued on July 1, 1863. (Pp. 349–351, Statement for Senate Military Committee.)

A few unimportant changes respecting the mode of payment in certain cases were made by act of March 15, 1864, and on March 31, 1866, the additional sum of $550,000 was appropriated for the payment of claims arising under its provisions, such sum to be transferred from the general fund of the State to the "soldiers' relief fund."

Fearing that the total amount of $1,150,000 specifically appropriated might still prove insufficient to pay all the claims accruing under the act of April 27, 1863, above mentioned, the legislature directed, by an act which also took effect March 31, 1866 (p. 604, Stats. of California, 1865–'66), that the remainder of such claims should be audited and allowed out of the appropriation and fund made and created by the act granting bounties to the volunteers of California, approved April 4, 1864, and more fully referred to on page 19 of this report,

Upon the certificate of the adjutant-general of the State that the amounts were due under the provisions of the act and of the Board of State Examiners, warrants amounting to $1,459,270.21 were paid by the State treasurer, as shown by the receipts of the payees indorsed on said warrants.

It is worthy of note here that on July 16, 1863, the governor of California, replying to a communication from the headquarters Department of the Pacific, dated July 5, 1863, advising him that under a resolution of Congress adopted March 9, 1862, the payments provided for by the State law of April 27, 1863, might be made through the officers of the pay department of the U. S. Army, stated that the provisions of said law were such as to preclude him from availing himself of the offer.

Some information as to the circumstances and exigencies under which this money was expended may be derived from the following extract from the annual report of the adjutant-general of the State for the year 1862, dated December 15, 1862:

"The rank and file of the California contingent is made up of material of which any State might be proud, and the sacrifices they have made should be duly appreciated and their services rewarded by the State. I do most earnestly recommend therefore that the precedent established by many of the Atlantic coast States of paying their troops in the service of the United States an additional amount monthly should be adopted by California, and that a bill appropriating, say, $10 per month to each enlisted man of the troops raised or to be raised in this State be passed. * * * This would be a most tangible method of recognizing the patriotic efforts of our soldiers, relieve many of their families from actual destitution and want, and hold out a fitting encouragement for honorable service." (P. 58, Statement for Senate Committee on Military Affairs.)

Your examiners are of the opinion that the favorable action which was taken on the above recommendation of the adjutant-general can not be justly ascribed to any desire on the part of the legislature to avoid resort to a conscription, although the exclusion of drafted men from the benefits of the act indicates that they realized and deemed it proper to call attention to the possibility of a draft. Unlike the law of April 4, 1864, the benefits of which were confined to men who should enlist after the date of its passage and be credited to the quota of the State, the provisions of the act now under consideration extended alike to the volunteers who had already entered or *had actually* completed their enlistment contract and to those who were to enlist in the future. There is every reason for the belief that the predominating if not the only reason of the State authorities in enacting this measure was to allow their volunteers in the United States service such a stipend as would, together with the pay received by them from the General Government, amount to a fair and just compensation. In fact, as has already been stated, this was expressly declared to be the purpose of the act.

It appears that up to December 31, 1862, those of the U. S. troops serving in the Department of the Pacific who were paid at all—in some cases detachments had not been paid for a year or more—were generally paid in coin, but on February 9, 1863, instructions were issued from the Treasury Department to the assistant treasurer of the United States at San Francisco that "checks of disbursing officers must be paid in United States notes." (Letter of Deputy Paymaster-General George H. Ringgold, dated February 13, 1863, to Paymaster-General; copy herewith marked Exhibit No. 10.)

Before this, greenbacks had become the current medium of exchange in all ordinary business transactions in the Eastern States, but in the Pacific coast States and the adjoining territories, gold continued to be the basis of circulation throughout the war. At this time the paper currency had become greatly depreciated, and on February 28, 1863, the price of gold in Treasury notes touched 170. This action of the Government in compelling troops to accept such notes as an equivalent of gold in payment for services rendered by them in a section where coin alone was current, gave rise to much dissatisfaction. For although gold could be bought in San Francisco at nearly the same price in Treasury notes as in New York, it must be remembered that the troops in the Department of the Pacific were largely stationed at remote and isolated points.

When paying in greenbacks for articles purchased by or for services rendered by them in these out-of-the-way places, they were obliged to submit not only to the current discount in San Francisco, but also to a further loss occasioned by the desire of the persons who sold the articles or rendered the service, to protect themselves against possible further depreciation. It admits of little doubt that by reason of his inability to realize the full value of paper money, as quoted in the money centers, and of the fact that wages and the cost of living and of commodities of every kind were abnormally high (owing in great part to the development of newly-discovered mines in that region), the purchasing power of the greenback dollar in the hands of the average soldier serving in the Department of the Pacific was from the latter part of 1862 onward from 25 to 50 per cent less than that of the same dollar paid to his fellow soldier in the East.

Representation of great hardship which the Treasury Department's instructions entailed upon the troops were promptly made. On March 10, 1863, the legislature telegraphed to Washington a resolution adopted on that date instructing the State's delegation in Congress to impress upon the Executive "the necessity which exists of having officers and soldiers of the U. S. Army, officers, seamen, and marines of the U. S. Navy, and all citizen employés in the service of the Government of the United States serving west of the Rocky Mountains and on the Pacific coast paid their salaries and pay in gold and silver currency of the United States, provided the same be paid in as revenue on this coast." (P. 46, Statement for Senate Committee on Military Affairs,)

And on March 16, 1863, Brig. Gen. G. Wright, the commander of the Department of the Pacific (comprising, besides California, the State of Oregon and the Territories of Nevada, Utah, and Arizona) transmitted to the adjutant-general of the U. S. Army a letter of Maj. C. S. Drew, First Oregon Cavalry, commandant at Camp

Baker, Oregon, containing an explicit statement of the effects of and a formal protest against paying his men in greenbacks. In his letter of transmittal (p. 154, Senate Ex. Doc. 70, Fiftieth Congress, second session), General Wright remarked as follows:

"The difficulties and embarrassments enumerated in the major's communication are common to all the troops in this department, and I most respectfully ask the serious consideration of the General in Chief and the War Department to this subject. Most of the troops would prefer waiting for their pay to receiving notes worth but little more than half their face; but, even at this ruinous discount, officers, unless they have private means, are compelled to receive the notes. Knowing the difficulties experienced by the Government in procuring coin to pay the Army, I feel great reluctance in submitting any grievances from this remote department, but justice to the officers and soldiers demands that a fair statement should be made to the War Department."

It was under circumstances and exigencies such as these that the legislature themselves—all appeals to the General Government having proved futile—provided the necessary relief by the law of April 27, 1863. They did not even after that relax their efforts on behalf of U. S. troops, other than their own volunteers, serving among them, but on April 1, 1864, adopted a resolution requesting their Representatives in Congress to "use their influence in procuring the passage of a law giving to the officers and soldiers of the regular Army stationed on the Pacific coast an increase of their pay amounting to 30 per cent on the amount now allowed by law."

OREGON.—EXTRA MONTHLY COMPENSATION TO OFFICERS AND ENLISTED MEN OF HER STATE VOLUNTEERS.

[Senate Ex. Doc. No. 17, Fifty-first Congress, first session, p. 14.]

The certificate of the State treasurer, duly authenticated by the secretary of state under the seal of the State, sets forth that the amounts severally paid out for the redemption of relief bonds, as shown by the books of the treasurer's office, as reported by the treasurer to the several legislative assemblies, and as verified by the several joint committees (investigating commissions) of said assembly under the provisions of a joint resolution thereof, aggregate $90,476.32. The following books, papers, etc., are also submitted in evidence of payment:

(1) The canceled bonds.

(2) A copy of the relief bond register, the correctness of which is certified by the secretary of state and state treasurer, showing number of bond, to whom issued, date of issue, and amount of bond; also showing the date and rate of redemption. The reports of the joint committees of the legislature above mentioned, to the effect that they compared the record kept by the State treasurer with the bonds redeemed and found the amounts correct and agreeing with the amounts reported by the State treasurer to the legislative assembly, are entered in said bond register.

(3) Certificates of service given to the several Oregon volunteers upon which warrants were given entitling the holders to bonds. These certificates cover service for which the sum of $86,639.85 was due. The remainder of the certificates, the State authorities report, were not found and are probably lost or destroyed.

(4) Copies of the muster rolls of the Oregon volunteers, certified to by the secretary of state, setting forth the entire service of each officer and enlisted man.

In all, bonds amounting to 93,637 were issued. As has been stated, but $90,476.32 is found to have been expended in the redemption of these bonds, some of which were redeemed at less than their face value. Five bonds, valued at $731, have not been redeemed.

The authority by which these bonds were issued is contained in an act of the legislature, which was approved on October 24, 1864 (copy herewith), appropriating a sum not exceeding $100,000 to constitute and be known as the "commissioned officers and soldiers' relief fund," out of which was to be paid to each commissioned officer and enlisted soldier of the companies of Oregon volunteers raised in the State for the service of the United States to aid in repelling invasion, etc., from the time of their enlistment to the time of their discharge, $5 per month in addition to the pay allowed them by the United States. Enlisted men not receiving an honorable discharge from the service, or volunteers discharged for disability existing at the time of enlistment, were not to be entitled to the benefits of the act, nor was payment under the provisions thereof to be made to an enlisted soldier until he should be honorably discharged the service; but enlisted married men having families dependent upon them were authorized to allot the whole or any portion of the monthly pay accruing to them for the support of such dependents. A bond bearing interest, payable semiannually, at 7 per cent per annum, redeemable July 1, 1875, with coupons for the interest attached, was to be issued by the secretary of state for

such amount as the adjutant-general should certify to be due under the provisions of the act to each man, whose receipt for the amount so paid to him was to be taken by the secretary of state. Said bonds were to be paid to the recipient or order.

The circumstances and exigencies that led to the enactment of the above-cited law, and to the expenditures incurred under its provisions, were substantially the same as those which brought about the adoption of similar measures of relief in California and Nevada. It must have been patent to every one fully acquainted with the circumstances of the case that the volunteers that had been raised in Oregon at this time (October 24, 1864), consisting only of the 7 companies of the First Oregon Cavalry and the independent detachment of four months' men, a majority of whom had then nearly completed their terms, had been greatly underpaid, considering the nature of the service performed by them and the current rate of salaries and wages realized in other pursuits of life. At the time of the enrollment and muster-in of the First Oregon Cavalry and up to the latter part of 1862 the Government paid those of its troops in the Department of the Pacific that were paid at all in specie; but, as often happened during the war, a number of the companies of the regiment named, occupying remote stations, remained unpaid for a long time, and were finally paid in Treasury notes, some of the members having more than a year's pay due them.

During the remainder of the war the Government paid its troops in the Department of the Pacific, as elsewhere, in greenbacks. Referring to this condition of things and to the fact that coin continued to be the ordinary medium of exchange in Oregon in private business transactions, Maj. C. S. Drew, First Oregon Cavalry, in a letter to his department commander, dated March 4, 1863 (p. 154, Senate Ex. Doc. 70, Fiftieth Congress, second session), called attention to the fact that at his station (Camp Baker) Treasury notes were "worth not more than 50 or 55 cents per dollar;" that each officer and soldier of his command was serving for less than half pay, and had done so, some of them, for sixteen months past; that while capital protected itself from loss and perhaps realized better profits than under the old and better system of payment in coin, "the soldier did not have that power, and if paid in notes must necessarily receipt in full for what is equivalent to him of half pay or less for the service he has rendered, and must continue to fulfill his part of his contract with the Government for the same reduced rate of pay until his period of service shall have terminated; and that "good men will not enlist for $6 or $7 a month while $13 is the regular pay, and, moreover, is being realized by every soldier in every other department than the Pacific." In forwarding this letter to the Adjutant-General, U. S. Army, the department commander remarked that the embarrassments enumerated in the major's communication were common to all the troops in the department, and he therefore asked "the serious consideration of the general in chief and the War Department to this subject." Some months later (August 18, 1863) Gen. Alvord, while reporting to the department commander the location of a new military post at Fort Boise, referred to the difficulties encountered by the garrison charged with the duty of establishing it as follows:

"Some difficulty is experienced in building the post in consequence of the low rates of legal-tender notes. In that country they bear merely nominal value. The depreciation of the Government currency not only embarrasses the Quartermaster's Department, but also tends greatly to disaffect the men. The differences between their pay and the promises held out by the richest mines, perhaps, on the coast, the proximity of which makes them all the more tempting, is so great that many desertions occur." (Senate Ex. Doc. 70, Fiftieth Congress, second session, p. 188.)

About the same time (September 1, 1863) the adjutant-general of the State complained of the inadequacy of the soldiers' pay, resulting from the depreciation of the paper currency with which they were paid. Referring to the fact that after the expiration of eight months from the date of the requisition of the United States military authorities for 6 additional companies for the First Oregon Cavalry but 1 had been raised, he said:

"And yet we are not prepared to say that it is for the want of patriotism on the part of the people of Oregon, but from other causes, partly from the deficiency in the pay of the volunteer in comparison with the wages given in the civil pursuits of life, as well as with the nature of the currency with which they are paid, the depreciation of which renders it hardly possible for the soldier to enlist from any other motive save pure patriotism. And I would here suggest that the attention of our legislature be called to this defect, and that additional pay, either in land, money, or something else, be allowed to those who have volunteered. Justice demands that this should be done."

In enacting the relief law of October 24, 1864, it is fair to presume that the legislature was largely influenced by the following statements and recommendations of the governor, contained in his annual message, dated September 15, 1864:

"The Snake and other tribes of Indians in eastern Oregon have been hostile and constantly committing depredations. The regiment has spent two summers on the

plains, furnishing protection to the immigration and to the trade and travel in that region of the country. During the past summer the regiment has traveled over 1,200 miles, and the officers and men are still out on duty. The officers and most, if not all, the men joined the regiment through patriotic motives, and, while some of the time they have been traveling over rich gold fields, where laborers' wages are from $3 to $5 per day, there have been very few desertions, and that, too, while they were being paid in depreciated currency, making their wages only about $5 per month. A great many of these men have no pecuniary interest in keeping open the lines of travel, protecting mining districts and merchants and traders. The benefit of their service thus inures to the benefit of others, who should help these faithful soldiers in bearing these burdens. Oregon, in proportion to her population and wealth, has paid far less than other States for military purposes. California pays her volunteers $5 per month extra in coin. It would be but an act of simple justice for this State to make good to the members of this regiment their losses by depreciated currency." (P. 87, Statement for Senate Military Committee.)

It is to be noted here that while the officers and men who became the beneficiaries of this law had been paid in a depreciated currency, which in Oregon does not appear to have had more than two-thirds of the purchasing power it had in the East, the Government provided them with clothing, subsistence, shelter, and all their absolutely necessary wants. On the other hand, it is to be borne in mind that the legislature must have been aware of the fact noted, and that it granted the extra compensation from a sense of justice and without any purpose calculated to benefit the State at large, such as might be reasonably inferred from the granting of bounties to men "who should hereafter enlist." As has been already mentioned, the terms of the Oregon volunteers were drawing to a close and the benefits of the law were restricted to the volunteers "raised," and did not therefore include those "to be raised."

It is very material to here call attention to certain important facts, to wit, that subsequent to the dates when these three States, through appropriate legislation enacted therefor by their respective legislatures, provided for the aforesaid extra pay to their own volunteers, Congress on June 20, 1864, increased by one-third the pay of the soldiers of the regular Army of the United States, to begin on May 1, 1864, and to continue during the rebellion (the close of which, as proclaimed by the President of the United States, was August 20, 1866 (13 U. S. Stats., 144, 145).

Nay, more, Congress on March 2, 1867, as to the soldiers, extended said act for three years from August 20, 1866, and at the same time, as to the officers of the regular Army of the United States, increased their pay by one-third for two years from July 1, 1866. (14 U. S. Stats., 422, 423.)

Nay, still more, in this act of June 20, 1864, Congress provided for the payment of bounties (or constructive mileage) to such soldiers as should reenlist, as therein recited, and which bounties had theretofore been denied payment by Second Comptroller Brodhead under his aforesaid decisions of the Treasury Department.

Nay, even still more, on March 2, 1867 (14 U. S. Stats., 487), Congress provided for the payment of mileage to the California and Nevada volunteers from the places of their discharge in New Mexico, Arizona, Utah, etc., to the places of their enlistment, etc.

So therefore it fully appears that Congress finally, though tardily, enacted for the regular Army of the United States the identical provisions which these three States prior thereto felt called upon to enact for their own volunteers, the propriety of which legislation by said States has never been questioned, and the timeliness of which served only to measure the patriotism which inspired such legislation in aid of the "common defense."

But in the meanwhile the aforesaid legislation of these three States had been duly set in motion and was actively running in full force and effect at the dates of the aforesaid legislation of Congress, and the statutory obligations of said States to their own volunteers in good faith

had to be fully met according to the letter and spirit of the intention of their enactment.

These war claims of these three States are not therefore to be weighed in scales of refined technicality.

These State war claims are not private claims, but are public claims presented to Congress by three States of the Union in their corporate and political capacities, and are entitled to its highest possible consideration, because of the fact they are State claims for the reimbursement of *cash actually paid by these three States, as the "costs, charges, and expenses" in aiding th. United States, at their own solicitation, to maintain the "common defense" on the Pacific coast during a period of active war.*

Not only this, but said cash so by them expended *had to be and was hired by these three States by the sale of their State interest-bearing bonds, supported only by their own State credit.*

In order to resort to measures so extraordinary, the legislatures of these three States were compelled to avail themselves of those provisions of their State constitutions that contemplated extraordinary emergencies in public affairs, and which demanded extraordinary expenditures of money, in excess of the maximum limit provided for a condition of peace and tranquillity, and which extraordinary expenditures these three States felt justified in making in view of a state of actual war against the Union and of the obligation of the United States to indemnify and reimburse them for such expenditures as had been so guaranteed by Congress in its aforesaid legislation.

It is respectfully submitted that the aforesaid legislation of Congress and proceedings had by the Executive Departments of the United States in connection therewith, so fully executed in good faith by these three Pacific coast States, constituted and are statutory contracts which contemplate an obligation on the part of the United States to wholly indemnify these three States by fully reimbursing them the money they so advanced and expended in good faith to aid the United States to maintain the "common defense," and so hired by said States by the sale of their State interest-bearing bonds.

At the dates when the United States made the aforesaid calls or requisitions for these 18,715 volunteer troops there was no money in State treasuries of these three States which was not specifically appropriated to meet their fixed and necessary current expenses, and hence, not having any money with which to defray the "costs, charges, and expenses" of furnishing said volunteer troops for the military service of the United States, they *were compelled to raise money by hiring the same, and to do this they were compelled to sell at not less than par their State interest-bearing war bonds, principal and interest of which were paid in gold coin from money raised by taxation most extraordinary, levied upon the inhabitants of these three States.*

These statutory enactments of Congress, supplemented by these statutory enactments of the legislatures of these three States, constitute and are the highest and most solemn form of governmental contracts, and are to be construed in all cases, not as mere legislative enactments, *but as contracts* binding upon all parties thereto—in this case the United States and the States of California, Oregon, and Nevada.

Huidecooper's Lessee *v.* Douglas, 3 Cranch R., 1;
1 Peters' Condensed Rep., 446;
State Bank *v.* Knoop, 16 How., 369;
Corbin *v.* Board of County Comrs., 1 McCrary, 521;

Sinking Fund Cases, 99 U. S. R., 700;
Fletcher *v.* Peck, 6 Cranch, 87;
New Jersey *v.* Wilson, 7 Cranch, 166;
Dartmouth College Case, 4 Wheaton, 518;
Keith *v.* Clark, 97 U. S. R., 454.

It was impossible for these States to raise, enlist, organize, equip, and muster volunteer troops into the military service of the United States *without the immediate expenditure of cash*, and they could not expend cash which they did not have, and hence they were forced *to hire cash* in the same manner as they hired anything else, to wit, by paying for the use of such hire, to wit, interest on the principal so by them hired.

In construing the aforesaid legislation the circumstances under which the same was enacted are to be and must be taken into consideration.

In this case the emergencies were not only great, but extraordinary and imminent, not admitting in the least of any delay. The life of the nation was in peril; volunteer troops were imperatively demanded; official requisitions therefor had to be promptly obeyed; the Federal treasury was wholly empty; the State treasuries of these three States were equally empty, whatever money being on deposit therein having been appropriated and set apart for specific purposes, so that no part thereof could be constitutionally used for any other object whatsoever.

It was under circumstances like these that the Federal Government besought these three States to send them 18,715 volunteer troops, and in substance promised: "We will wholly indemnify and fully reimburse you for all proper costs, charges, and expenses incurred in our behalf therein," etc.

All these things were matters of public contemporaneous history, and were contained in the constitutions and State statutes of these three States, and presumably were well known to Congress at the dates when it enacted the aforesaid acts and adopted the aforesaid resolutions, and Congress must necessarily have contemplated that these three States, if they had not the cash, would necessarily make use of their credits, respectively, for the purpose of hiring the cash with which to immediately provide for raising said volunteer troops for the "common defense," and that whatever sums of money might be paid out by these States (both principal and interest paid for the use of said principal) would be necessarily reimbursed them by the United States.

The mere *title* of the aforesaid act of Congress of July 27, 1861, is of itself sufficient to declare the intent of Congress in these premises, to wit: "An act to indemnify the States (in this case of California, Oregon, and Nevada) for expenses incurred by them in defense of the United States," both before and after July 27, 1861.

To indemnify these States was and is "to save them harmless, to secure them against any future loss or damage, to fully make up to them for all that is past, to make good all expenditures, to fully reimburse them for all proper 'costs, charges, and expenses' incurred by them in furnishing said 18,715 volunteer troops." (Webster *et als.*)

The objects of this legislation by Congress will therefore not be wholly satisfied by a partial reimbursement to these States of these expenses so by them incurred, but the intention of Congress will be properly and wholly satisfied only by the full reimbursement to these States of the total principal of the cash by them hired, and the interest paid by them for the hire of the cash (principal) expended by them, at the request of the General Government, to aid the United States to maintain the "common defense" on the Pacific coast during the *rebellion.*

"The costs, charges, and expenses" contemplated by the aforesaid act of July 27, 1861, was the money which theretofore had been, or which thereafter might be "duly expended, actually laid out, in fact consumed by using, or the disbursements made, outlays paid, and charges met, as the proper expenses of war" by said three States. (Webster *et als.*)

Sullivan *v.* Triumph Mining Company, 39 Cal., 450;
Foster *v.* Goddard, 1 Cliff., 158;
1 Black, 506;
Dashiel *v.* Mayor, etc., of Baltimore, 46 Md., 615;
Dunwoodie *v.* The United States, 22 C. of Cls. R., 269.

There is another familiar rule of statutory construction which should be observed in the application of this act of July 27, 1861, and it is, that "what is implied in a statute is as much a part of it as what is expressed." (United States *v.* Babbitt, 1 Black, 55, 61.)

And the opinion of the court in that respect has been quoted with great emphasis in many subsequent decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States.

Gelpcke *v.* City of Dubuque, 1 Wall., 221;
Croxall *v.* Sherrard, 5 *id.*, 228;
Telegraph Company *v.* Eiser, 19 *id.*, 427;
United States *v.* Hodson, 10 *id.*, 406;
Buckley *v.* United States, 19 *id.*, 40.

The United States have universally reimbursed all sums of money actually expended and used for the benefit of the Federal Government, not only principal, but also interest paid for the hire of any principal used for such purposes.

In this case reimbursement is asked for interest, not upon any claim which these three States have against the United States, but as a part of the "costs, charges, and expenses" incurred and actually paid out, for which, it is respectfully submitted, full reimbursement should be made by the United States to these three States.

6 U. S. Stats., 139, April 18, 1814;
3 U. S. Stats., 422, April 9, 1819;
3 U. S. Stats., 560, April 11, 1820;
5 U. S. Stats., 522, August 23, 1842;
5 U. S. Stats., 578, August 31, 1842;
5 U. S. Stats., 628, March 3, 1843;
5 U. S. Stats., 716, April 30, 1834;
5 U. S. Stats., 797, March 1, 1845;
9 U. S. Stats., 571, February 27, 1851;
2 Comptroller's decision, vol. 15, p. 137, office records, holding to the effect that interest, when paid by a State for the use and benefit of the United States, becomes a part of the principal debt of the United States due to such State and constitutes a just and legal claim of such State against the Federal Government, as much so as the principal itself;
1 Opinion of the U. S. Attorney-General, 542, 566;
2 Opinion of the U. S. Attorney-General, 841;
5 Opinion of the U. S. Attorney-General, 71, 108, 463.

Congress is presumed to have enacted the aforesaid legislation with a full knowledge not only of its own aforesaid acts but also of the aforesaid decisions of the Executive Department of the United States in reference to the construction and application of similar legislation theretofore duly enacted by Congress; and if there existed any ambiguity

or doubt (which is denied in the premises) with reference to the true construction of such legislation by Congress, then such prior decisions and opinions of the proper Executive Departments of the United States upon such similar statutes should have a controlling weight, and said laws should be construed in harmony with such decisions and opinions.

U. S. *v.* Moore, 95 U. S. R., 760–63;
U. S. *v.* Pugh, 99 U. S., 265–269;
Hahn *v.* U. S., 107 U. S. R., 402–406;
Brown *v.* U. S., 113 U. S. R., 568;
U. S. *v.* Philbrick, 120 U. S. R., 52;
U. S. *v.* Hill, 120 U. S. R., 169.

The departmental construction and opinions of similar laws of Congress become part of these laws, as much so as if they had been expressly incorporated therein, and should be duly respected and adopted by Congress as is invariably done by the courts of the country.

The United States are liable for the reimbursement for the "costs, charges, and expenses" upon which these claims of these three States are founded, because the same were duly made and incurred at the request and solicitation of the United States to maintain the "common defense" on the Pacific coast while the United States were engaged in actual war, and hence these States in so making said expenditures were acting in fact as the fiscal agents of the Federal Government.

In view of the emergencies amid which, from 1861 to 1866, the Federal Government was placed, and the circumstances in which these States found themselves, it must be admitted that "the costs, charges, and expenses" for which reimbursement is now claimed were not only necessary, but it has never been at any time, by any person, or at any place, suggested that these three States could in any other manner have responded to the frequent calls and urgent demands of the United States, except by doing that which in good faith they promptly did, to wit, hire money and pay interest for such hire, implicitly relying upon the good faith, equity, and the public conscience of the United States and upon the highest order of obligation imposed upon and now resting upon the United States to wholly indemnify and fully reimburse the same.

These three States have not heretofore asked and do not now seek to recover any principal or any interest which they did not actually pay out of moneys by them hired, with which to meet "the costs, charges, and expenses" of raising, organizing, equipping, and furnishing, etc., 18,715 volunteer troops, for the military service of the Federal Government on the Pacific coast, and all of which troops were continuously engaged and employed in the field, from 1861 to 1866, inclusive, serving as far south as Arizona and as far north as the Territory of Washington, and as far east as the Territory of Utah.

The State interest-bearing war bonds of these three States were not authorized to be issued or sold and were not issued and sold, nor the cash represented thereby was not hired, and the interest paid for such hire was not paid to relieve their own people, but all of the same were done by these States to enable the Federal Government to do through their credit that which the United States did not do, and seemingly could not then otherwise do, to wit: to immediately put in the field 18,715 volunteer troops, fully equipped and prepared for military service and who, in the opinion of the United States, were immediately needed to maintain the "common defense" on the Pacific coast, and to serve as aforesaid during the period of the rebellion.

The principle contended for in these cases does not go even as far as Congress itself has heretofore gone in sundry cases, at sundry times, beginning at a very early period in the history of the Federal Government because these claims are for the reimbursement only of such cash as these three States actually hired and expended for the use and benefit of the Federal Government, during a period of active war, and at the solicitation of the United States, while Congress has at times not only authorized the reimbursement of the principal, but has also authorized the payment of interest, for the use by the Federal Government, of money, up to the dates when same was actually repaid by the United States.

As late as March 7, 1892, the War Claims Committee, in the House of Representatives, having this subject-matter under examination, made a unanimous report to the House, to wit: House Report No. 555, Fifty-second Congress, first session, to accompany H. R. 4566, which report is as follows, to wit:

[House Report, No. 555; Fifty-Second Congress, first session.]

MARCH 7, 1892.—Committed to the Committee of the Whole House and ordered to be printed.

Mr. STONE, of Kentucky, from the Committee on War Claims, submitted the following report (to accompany H. R. 4566):

The Committee on War Claims, to whom was referred the bill (H. R. 4566) to reimburse the several States for interest on moneys expended by them on account of raising troops, etc., submit the following report:

The facts out of which this bill for relief arises will be found stated in a report made by this committee to the House in the Fiftieth Congress, which is appended as a part of this report.

Your committee concur in the conclusions stated in that report and recommend the passage of the bill.

[House Report No. 309, Fiftieth Congress, first session.]

The Committee on War Claims, to whom was referred the bill (H. R. 1474) to reimburse the several States for interest on moneys expended by them on account of raising troops employed in aiding the United States in suppressing the late insurrection against the United States, beg leave to report the same back to the House with the recommendation that it do pass.

This recommendation is founded upon the precedents which Congress has heretofore established of paying interest on moneys advanced by States on account of the war of 1812; also, Indian wars of 1835, 1836, 1837, and 1838, and the northeast frontier of the State of Maine, as evidenced by the following acts of Congress:

To reimburse Virginia, act of March 3, 1825, Stat. at Large, vol. 4, 132.

To reimburse Maryland, act of May 13, 1826, Stat. at Large, vol. 4, p. 161.

To reimburse city of Baltimore, act of May 20, 1826, Stat. at Large, vol. 4, p. 177.

To reimburse Delaware, act of May 20, 1826, Stat. at Large, vol. 4, p. 175.

To reimburse New York, act of May 22, 1826, Stat. at Large, vol. 4, pp. 192, 193.

To reimburse Pennsylvania, act of March 3, 1827, Stat. at Large, vol. 4, pp. 240, 241.

To reimburse South Carolina, act of March 22, 1832, Stat. at Large, vol. 4, p. 499.

To reimburse Alabama, act of January 26, 1849, Stat. at Large, vol 6, p. 344.

To reimburse Georgia, act of March 3, 1851, Stat. at Large, vol. 6, p. 646.

To reimburse Maine, act of March 3, 1851, Stat. at Large, vol. 6, p. 626.

To reimburse New Hampshire, act of January 27, 1852, Stat. at Large, vol. 10, pp. 1, 2.

To reimburse Massachusetts, act of July 8, 1870, Stat. at Large, vol. 16, pp. 197, 198.

The President, by authority of Congress, called upon the governors of the States of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, West Virginia, Ohio, Kentucky, Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, Kansas, Nebraska, Nevada, Oregon, and California to furnish volunteers and militia

troops to aid the United States in suppressing the late insurrection against it, and these States expended various sums of money, which were advanced to the Government, in enrolling, equipping, subsisting, clothing, supplying, arming, paying, and transporting regiments and companies employed by the Government in suppressing the late insurrection, and it matters not to the Government from what sources these States obtained the moneys advanced by them for the benefit of the Government, they are equally and justly entitled to be paid interest on such advances from the time they presented their claims to the Government for payment to the time when the same were refunded by the Secretary of the Treasury.

These States incurred heavy obligations of indebtedness on account of raising these troops, on which they paid interest, and many of them are still paying interest on their bonded indebtedness.

As the Government had the use and benefit of these advances made by these States, above mentioned, and that, too, at a time when greatly needed, and added largely to the maintaining of the credit of the Government, it is deemed by your committee but equitable and just that interest should be allowed equally to all the States on moneys advanced by them to aid the Government in furnishing troops.

The same rule has been observed in the cases of several States which advanced money for the "common defense," in suppressing Indian and other wars, as follows, to wit:

Georgia, act March 3, 1879 (20 Stat. at L., p. 385); Washington Territory, act March 3, 1859 (11 Stat. at L., p. 429); New Hampshire, act January 27, 1852 (10 Stat. at L., p. 1); California, act of August 5, 1854 (10 Stat. at L., p. 582); California, act August 18, 1856 (11 Stat. at L., p. 91); California, act June 23, 1860 (12 Stat. at L., p. 104); California, act July 25, 1868 (15 Stat. at L., p. 175); California, act March 3, 1881 (21 Stat. at L., p. 510); and in aid of the Mexican war (see statute of June 2, 1848).

Attorney-General Wirt, in his opinion on an analogous case, says:

"The expenditure thus incurred forms a debt against the United States which they are bound to reimburse. If the expenditures made for such purpose are supplied from the treasury of the State, the United States reimburse the principal without interest; but if, being unable itself, from the condition of its own finances, to meet the emergency, such State has been obliged to borrow money for the purpose, and thus to incur a debt on which she herself has had to pay interest, such debt is essentially a debt due by the United States, and both the principal and interest are to be paid by the United States. (*See* Opinions of Attorneys-General, vol. 1, p. 174.)"

Thus it will be seen that the precedent for the payment of interest, under the rule adopted for the settlement of claims of war of 1812–'15 and Indian wars above cited, is well established.

These State war claims of these three States rest, therefore, upon a basis well founded, and, by virtue of the political relations existing between these States and the United States under the circumstances herein recited, entitle their petition to Congress for payment to prompt and just consideration.

These States have not been importunate in repeating their demands, but at all times have had a due regard for the fiscal condition of the Federal Treasury. They have been prompt, active, vigilant, and earnest in the due presentation of these State war claims against the United States, understating, if anything, rather than overstating, the exact amount thereof and asking at all times that they be reimbursed only whatever amount they actually paid to aid the United States in maintaining the "common defense," now computed and reported by the head of the War Department, under which all these military services have been performed.

The States of California, Oregon, and Nevada have not been guilty of any laches or delays tending to prejudice their said claims.

Under proper legislation of Congress, and under an appropriate resolution of the Senate, proceedings to carefully investigate these claims have been had, the amount of each and every necessary "cost charge and expense" in the case of each of these States has been heretofore

fully inquired into, exactly ascertained, specifically stated, and carefully computed by the honorable Secretary of War.

This branch of the history of these State war claims is, therefore, not embarrassed by any controversy as to the facts, leaving only to be determined by Congress the just measure of the obligations resting upon the General Government resulting from these facts, fully shown in this statement and recited in said reports officially made to the Senate by the Secretary of War and repeated in the several reports made to the House and Senate by the appropriate committees of each.

The question, therefore, that naturally arises is, "What is the duty of Congress under circumstances like these in a case like this?" These claimants are not private parties, but are States of the Union, *entitled to indemnities from the Federal Government*, who have heretofore relied and do now rely for reimbursement upon the aforesaid legislation of Congress and acts of its highest officers, wherein the amount by them expended for the "common defense" has been exactly ascertained by the Secretary of War and duly reported to the Senate. These States do not ask for reimbursement of any money which they did not pay or fully expend; but they do ask that Congress, without further delay, objection, or evasion, may now fully reimburse them the moneys heretofore by them fully paid in gold coin and appropriated and expended in good faith in aiding the United States, at their own solicitation, to maintain the "common defense," and expended too, by these States when the United States seemingly were unable to pay the same.

Other States of the Union have been reimbursed sums of money which they in good faith expended during the rebellion in aid of the "common defense," and in amounts aggregating (up to March 5, 1892) the sum of $44,725,072.38, as shown by the subjoined correspondence and table, prepared in the Treasury Department, on account of expenses incurred by the States therein named during the war of the rebellion.

This table contains the names of every State loyal during the rebellion *except the States of California, Oregon, and Nevada.* This correspondence and table are as follows, to wit:

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, *March 21, 1892.*

Hon. WILLIAM M. STEWART, *U. S. Senate:*

SIR: In reply to your communication of the 9th instant, I have the honor to transmit herewith a statement of the amounts reimbursed the several States for expenses incurred by them in behalf of the United States during the war of the rebellion, as prepared in the offices of the Second and Third Auditors of the Treasury, together with accompanying reports of said officers.

Respectfully yours,

L. CROUNSE,
Assistant Secretary.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
Second Auditor's Office, March 21, 1892.

Respectfully returned to the honorable Secretary of the Treasury, with the report that the amounts allowed through this office, as reimbursment to States for expenses in behalf of the United States during the war of the rebellion, are set forth in Senate Ex. Doc. No. 11, Fifty-first Congress, first session.

No additional allowances have been made.

J. H. FRANKLIN,
Acting Auditor.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, OFFICE OF THE THIRD AUDITOR,
Washington, D. C., March 15, 1892.

Hon. CHARLES FOSTER, *Secretary of the Treasury:*

SIR: I have the honor to return the communication addressed to you by Hon. William M. Stewart, U. S. Senate, on the 9th instant, respecting allowances to the several States for reimbursements of the expenses of raising troops for the United States during the war of the rebellion.

The tabular statement inclosed by him (aggregating $44,137,590.34) is taken from a "Recapitulation," on page 63 of Senate Ex. Doc. No. 11, Fifty-first Congress, first session. It included jointly allowances as shown by the records of this office and as reported by the Second Auditor from his records.

So far as the data came from this office, it is correct; but some further allowances have since been made through this office, as shown by the tabular statement herewith. But I perceive that by oversight a sum of $485 paid to Nebraska was included therein, which sum was *not* for raising troops for the United States, but was expenses in suppressing Indian hostilities. I now drop out that item.

So far as the data came from the records of the Second Auditor I presume it to be correct, but can not so certify; nor can I state officially whether any further allowances have since been made through his office.

Respectfully yours,

A. W. SHAW,
Acting Auditor.

Statement accompanying Third Auditor's letter to the Secretary of the Treasury, dated March 15, 1892.

State.	Allowances by Third Auditor.				
	As reported in Senate Ex. Doc. No. 1438, Fortieth Congress, second session, p. 57.	Allowances made since said list.	Total allowances by Third Auditor.	Allowances by Second Auditor as reported in Senate Ex. Doc. No. 11, Fifty-first Congress, first session, p. 63.	Total allowances up to Mar. 15, 1892.
Connecticut	$2,096,950.46	$6,014.83	$2,102,965.29		$2,102,965.29
Massachusetts	3,660,483.07	301,133.28	3,961,616.35	$7,608.88	3,969,225.23
Rhode Island	723,530.15		723,530.15		723,530.15
Maine	1,027,185.00	448.99	1,027,633.99		1,027,633.99
New Hampshire	976,081.92	476.56	976,558.48	450.00	977,008.48
Vermont	832,557.40		832,557.40		832,557.40
New York	3,957,996.98	*102,737.32	4,060,734.30	198,938.52	4,259,672.82
New Jersey	1,420,167.35	6,548.45	1,426,715.80	96,859.44	1,523,575.24
Pennsylvania	3,204,636.24	14,390.04	3,219,026.28	667,074.35	3,886,100.63
Ohio	3,245,319.58	71,348.20	3,316,667.78		3,316,667.78
Wisconsin	1,035,059.17	24,102.86	1,059,162.03		1,059,162.03
Iowa	1,039,759.45	3,705.35	1,043,464.80		1,043,464.80
Illinois	3,080,442.51	1,532.92	3,081,975.43		3,081,975.43
Indiana	2,668,529.78		2,668,529.78	1,073,208.51	3,741,738.29
Minnesota	70,798.45	462.45	71,260.90	276.75	71,537.65
Kansas	384,138.15	2,298.21	386,436.36		386,436.36
Colorado	55,238.84		55,238.84		55,238.84
Missouri	7,580,421.43	996.37	7,581,417.80		7,581,417.80
Michigan	844,262.53	1,493.16	845,755.69		845,755.69
Delaware	31,988.96		31,988.96		31,988.96
Maryland	133,140.99	3,140.65	136,281.64		136,281.64
Virginia	48,469.97		48,469.97		48,469.97
West Virginia	471,063.94		471,063.94		471,063.94
Kentucky	3,504,466.57	47,137.40	3,551,603.97		3,551,603.97
Total	42,092,668.89	587,967.04	42,680,655.93	2,044,416.45	44,725,072.38

*Included in this sum is an allowance of $16,197.42 to New York not yet actually paid, but upon the list to be reported to Congress at its present session, for a deficiency appropriation.

L. W. F.

SECOND AUDITOR'S OFFICE, *March 19, 1892 (Mail Room).*
THIRD AUDITOR'S OFFICE, *March 15, 1892.*

Many of the important facts reported to the Senate by its Committee on Military Affairs, in a statement in support and explanation of Senate bill No. 3420, Fiftieth Congress, first session, which though when

reported was intended to apply only to the rebellion war claims of the Territory and State of Nevada, yet the same apply with equal force and correctness to these similar rebellion war claims of the States of California and Oregon, some of which, recited in said statement, are as follows, to wit:

RESULTS OF THE FOREGOING LEGISLATION BY NEVADA.

By these legislative enactments of Nevada substantial and effectual aid was given and guaranteed by Nevada, both as a Territory and State, to the Government of the United States in guarding its overland mail and emigrant route and the line of the proposed transcontinental railroad, in furnishing troops during the war of the rebellion, and for suppressing Indian hostilities and maintaining peace in the country inhabited by the Mormons, and for the common defense, as contemplated in said circular letter of Secretary Seward, along an exposed, difficult, and hostile Indian frontier, and then but sparsely populated. These enactments were fully known to the authorities of the United States and to Congress; they have ever been acquiesced in and met with the sanction and practical indorsement of the United States, in whose interest and for whose benefit they were made. As a partial compensation to these volunteers for this irregular, hazardous, and exposed service in the mountains and on the desert plains, and to aid them to a small extent to maintain families dependent upon them for support, first the Territory and afterwards the State of Nevada offered and paid this small stipend, never suspecting that the United States would not promptly and willingly respond when asked to reimburse the same. These citizens of Nevada who volunteered, enlisted, and did military service for the United States were compelled in many cases to abandon their employment, in which their wages were always lucrative and service continuous, so that nothing less than the individual patriotism of these volunteers enabled the Territory and State of Nevada to cheerfully and promptly respond to every call and requisition made upon them for troops by the United States.

NEVADA'S DILIGENCE IN THESE PREMISES.

The State of Nevada has not slept upon her rights in any of these premises nor been guilty of any *laches;* on the contrary, at all proper times she has respectfully brought the same to the attention of Congress by memorials of her legislature and of her State authorities, and through her representatives in Congress. On March 29, 1867, her legislature first asked for the payment of the claims of the State by a joint resolution, which is printed in the appendix, marked Exhibit No. 8, p. 64. And again, on February 1, 1869, the legislature of Nevada passed a memorial and joint resolution renewing her prayer in these premises, which is also so printed in the appendix, marked Exhibit No. 9, p. 65.

The Journals of the U. S. Senate show that on March 10, 1868, the writer of this report presented the first-mentioned memorial and resolution to the Senate, accompanied with an official statement of the amount of the claims of the State referred to therein. These papers were referred to the Committee on Claims, but the records fail to show that any action was ever taken upon them. On May 29 of the same year the writer of this report introduced a joint resolution (S. 138) providing for the appointment of a board of examiners to examine the claims of the State of Nevada against the United States, and on June 18 of the same year the Committee on Claims, to whom this joint resolution was referred, was discharged from its further consideration. The official statement of the moneys expended by the State of Nevada on account of the United States, and presented to the Senate on March 10, 1868, can not now be found on the files of the Senate.

On February 11, 1885, and January 26, 1887, the legislature of Nevada, renewing its prayer for a reimbursement of the money by her expended for the use and benefit of the United States, further memorialized Congress, asking for the settlement of her claims, which are printed in the appendix and marked Exhibits Nos. 10 and 11, pp. 65 and 66.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

Nevada has not demanded a bounty nor presented a claim against the United States for reimbursement of any expenditure she did not in good faith actually make for the use and benefit of the United States, and made, too, only subsequent to the date of the aforesaid appeal of Secretary Seward to the nation, and made, too, in consequence of said appeal and of the subsequent calls and requisitions made upon her then scanty resources and sparse population, and wherein the good faith of the

United States was to be relied upon to make to her ungrudgingly a just reimbursement whenever the United States found itself in a condition to redeem all its obligations.

Nevada has been diligent in making her claim known to Congress, but she has not with an indecorous speed demanded her pound of flesh, but has waited long and patiently, believing upon the principle that the higher obligations between States, like those among men, are not always "set down in writing, signed and sealed in the form of a bond, but reside rather in honor," and that the obligation of the United States due her in this case was as sacred as if it had originally been in the form of a 4-per cent U. S. bond, now being redeemed by the United States at $1.27 upon each $1 of this particular form of its unpaid obligations.

Nevada has not solicited any charity in this case, but, on the contrary, by numerous petitions and memorials has respectfully represented to Congress why the taxes heretofore levied upon her people and paid out of her own treasury to her volunteer troops in gold and silver coin to aid the United States at its own solicitation to protect itself and maintain the general welfare should be now returned to her by the General Government.

Congress should not forget that during the long period of the nation's peril the citizens of Nevada, like those of California (when not engaged in the military or naval service of the United States) not only guarded the principal gold and silver mines of the country then discovered, and prevented them from falling into the hands of the public enemy, but also worked them so profitably for the general welfare as to enable the United States to make it possible to resume specie payment and to redeem its bonds at 27 per cent above par, and to repay all its money-lenders at a high rate of interest, and that, too, not in the depreciated currency with which it paid Nevada's volunteer troops, but in gold coin of standard value.

As these expenditures were honestly made by the Territory and State of Nevada, your committee do not think that, under all the peculiar and exceptional circumstances of this case, the action of the Territory and State of Nevada should be hewn too nicely or too hypercritically by the United States at this late date. These expenditures were all made in perfect good faith and for patriotic purposes, and secured effectual aid to the United States which otherwise could not have been obtained without a much larger expenditure. The State of Nevada in good faith assumed and paid all the obligations of the Territory of Nevada to aid the United States, and issued and sold its own bonds for their payment, upon which bonds it has paid interest until the present time. The only question now for consideration is, shall the United States in equal good faith and under all the circumstances herein recited relieve the State of Nevada from this obligation, or shall the United States insist and require it to be paid by the people of that State alone?

In support of that portion of these State war claims, which relates to the indemnity and reimbursement of the cash paid by these three States as *interest* for the hire and use of the principal by them borrowed, with which to defray the "costs, charges, and expenses" of furnishing said 18,715 volunteer troops there is submitted herewith and printed in the appendix as Exhibit No. 1 a copy of the decision of the U. S. Court of Claims, rendered June 8, 1891, on the petition of the State of New York in the cause in that court entitled "The State of New York *v.* The United States" (26 U. S Court Claims Reports, 467–509).

That court in adjudicating the claim so presented to it in said petition of that State for *interest* actually paid out for the hire and use of money by it borrowed and expended to aid the United States to maintain the "common defense," rested its opinion and entered its decree and judgment upon principles identical in all respects with those contended for herein, and that decision being the latest judicial declaration and announcement of the obligation of the United States incurred under circumstances similar to those herein recited, is entitled to the careful and respectful consideration of Congress in these premises.

Respectfully,

JOHN MULLAN,
Of Counsel for California, and
Attorney for Oregon and Nevada, Claimant States.

No. 1310 CONNECTICUT AVENUE,
Washington, D. C., January 4, 1894.

CITY OF WASHINGTON,
District of Columbia, ss:

John Mullan, on first being duly sworn, says that he is now, and for many years last past has been, of counsel for the State of California and attorney for the States of Oregon and Nevada in all matters recited and referred to in the foregoing statement, all of which he has carefully read and knows fully the contents of all thereof; that all the matters therein recited are true of his own personal knowledge, except those matters therein recited upon information and belief, and as to those matters he believes the same to be true; that the United States are now justly indebted to the State of California in the sum of $3,951,915.42, and to the State of Oregon in the sum of $335,152.88, and to the State of Nevada in the sum of $404,040.70, said sums being the identical amounts as reported to the Senate by the honorable Secretary of War, and as recited in Senate Ex. Docs. Nos. 10, 11, 17, Fifty-first Congress, first session, and in Senate bill No. 1295, and in House bill No. 4959, Fifty-third Congress, second session, which two bills are printed in the appendix herewith and marked Exhibits Nos. 2 and 3, and that no portion of any thereof has ever heretofore been paid by the United States to said States, or to either of them. That the foregoing statement* embodies substantially the same facts (errors of omission and commission excepted) as were submitted in a letter signed by all the Senators and Representatives in Congress from California, Oregon, and Nevada on March 16, 1892, addressed to the House Committee on Appropriations, in support of the joint request of said delegations to said committee to include these State war claims in the deficiency appropriation bill during the Fifty-second Congress, but which request was refused only because said claims were not recognized by the subcommittee on deficiencies of said committee as being in the nature of deficiencies, but that said State claims in the opinion of said subcommittee should otherwise be provided for.

JOHN MULLAN.

Subscribed and sworn to before me this 4th day of January, 1894.

GEO. E. TERRY,
Notary Public.

[NOTARIAL SEAL.]

APPENDIX.

EXHIBIT NO. 1.

[Court of Claims, No. 16430. The State of New York v. The United States. Decided June 8, 1891.]

FINDINGS OF FACT.

This case having been heard by the Court of Claims, the court, upon the evidence, finds the facts as follows:

I.

Between the 22d day of April, 1861, and the 4th day of July, 1861, the State of New York, by its governor, Hon. Edwin D. Morgan, who was the commander in chief of its military forces, and by its other duly authorized officers and agents, enlisted, enrolled, armed, equipped, and caused to be mustered into the military service of the United States, to aid in the suppression of the war of the rebellion, 38 regiments of troops for the period of two years, or during the war, and numbering in all 30,000 men.

*Exhibits Nos. 4, 5, 6, and 7 are also made parts of this statement, April 14, 1894.

II.

Such troops were so enlisted, armed, equipped, and mustered into the service of the United States, under and pursuant to the provisions of chapter 277 of the laws of the State of New York, passed April 15, 1861, and which act provided that all expenditures for arms, supplies, or equipments necessary for such forces should be made under the direction of the governor, lieutenant-governor, secretary of State, comptroller, State engineer and surveyor, and State treasurer, or a majority of them, and that the moneys therefor should, on the certificate of the governor, be drawn from the treasury, on the warrant of the comptroller, in favor of such person or persons as shall, from time to time, be designated by the governor, and the sum of $3,000,000, or so much thereof as might be necessary, was appropriated by the act, out of any moneys in the treasury not otherwise appropriated, to defray the expenses authorized by the act, or any other expenses of mustering the militia of the State, or any part thereof, into the service of the United States.

The act also imposes, for the fiscal year commencing on the 1st day of October, 1861, a State tax for such sum as the comptroller should deem necessary to meet the expenses thereby authorized, not to exceed two mills on each dollar of the valuation of real and personal property in the State, to be assessed, raised, levied, collected, and paid in the same manner as the other State taxes are levied, assessed, collected, and paid into the treasury. (2 Laws of New York, session of 1861, p. 631, 636.)

III.

There was no money in the treasury of the State in 1861 which was not specifically appropriated for the expenses of the State government, and no money which could be used to defray the expenses of enlisting, enrolling, arming, equipping, and mustering such troops into the service of the United States.

IV.

The fiscal year began on the first day of October and ended on the 30th day of September, and the tax rate necessary to raise the tax required for the purpose of raising the moneys necessary to defray the expenses of the State government and other expenses authorized by law, in any fiscal year, is fixed by the legislature, which convenes on the first Tuesday in January preceding the commencement of the fiscal year for which the taxes are required; that is to say: For the fiscal year beginning on the 1st day of October, 1860, and ending on the 30th day of September, 1861, the tax rate was fixed by the legislature which began its session on the first Tuesday in January, 1860, and the tax rate necessary to defray the expenditures for the fiscal year beginning October 1, 1861, and ending September 30, 1862, was fixed by the legislature which began its session on the first Tuesday of January, 1861.

V.

Under the laws of the State of New York then existing, the moneys to be collected for the State taxes could not reach the State treasury and be made applicable for use in defraying its expenditures until the months of April and May of the fiscal year for which they were levied, and in some instances not until a later date, and the moneys authorized to be raised by the act of 1861, to defray the expenses of enrolling, enlisting, arming, equipping, and mustering in such troops, did not reach the State treasury, and were not available for use by the State officers in defraying such expenses until the months of April and May, 1862.

The State comptroller, in 1861, made an apportionment of the State taxes among the several counties, and issued to the board of supervisors of each county a requisition requiring such board to cause to be levied and collected and paid into the State treasury the county's quota of such tax.

The board of supervisors were required by law to meet in the month of November for the purpose, among other things, of levying such tax and apportioning it among the several towns of the county and making out a tax roll and warrant to the collector of taxes in each town, for the levy and collection of the town's quota of the tax into the county treasury, and each town had until the 1st day of February in which to pay its quota of said tax into the county treasury, and the county treasurer had until the 1st day of May in which to pay the quota of the county into the State treasury, and if he failed to pay in the amount by that time the comptroller might report the matter to the attorney-general, who must wait thirty days, or until the first day of June, before procedings could be taken to compel payment.

VI.

The total tax rate of the State, fixed at the session of the legislature beginning on the first Tuesday, 1861, was 3½ mills, of which 1½ mills was the amount of the tax authorized by chapter 277, and the moneys realized from this tax were paid into the State treasury as follows:

In January, 1862	$190,403.72
In February, 1862	153,792.32
In March, 1862	696,696.00
In April, 1862	170,909.34
In May, 1862	614,307.09
In June, 1862	1,345,671.61
In July, 1862	68,365.27
In August, 1862	180,023.03
In September, 1862	800,246.93
And the sum of, subsequent to October	274,590.64

VII.

The State of New York had no other means of raising the money required for the purpose of immediately defraying the expenses of enlisting, enrolling, arming, equipping, and mustering in such troops, except by borrowing money in anticipation of the collection of its State tax, and between June 3, 1861, and July 2, 1861, it issued for that purpose bonds in anticipation of such State tax, to provide for the public defense, to the amount of $1,250,000, payable on July 1, 1862, except that $100,000 was payable June 1, 1862, at the rate of 7 per cent per annum, payable quarterly, which at that time was the legal rate of interest under the laws of the State of New York.

The issue of all these bonds was necessary for the purpose of providing the money required, and the full amount of the face value of such bonds was received by the State, upon the sale thereof, and was used and applied by it, together with other moneys, in raising troops, and the entire sum expended by the State for such purpose, between the 23d day of April, 1861, and the 1st day of January, 1862, was $2,873,501.19, exclusive of any interest upon the bonds or loans made by the State for that purpose.

VIII.

In addition to the sums aforesaid, the State of New York paid, on account of interest which from time to time accrued on said bonds issued in anticipation of the tax for the public defense, the sum of $91,320.84, as follows:

1861:	
October 1	$1,750.00
Same date	2,197.20
December 27	22,331.97
1862:	
January 2	1,750.00
Same date	1,750.00
March 26	18,375.00
April 1	1,750.00
Same date	1,750.00
June 3	1,166.67
June 26	18,375.00
July 1	1,750.00
Same date	1,750.00
September 26	16,625.00
Total	91,320.84

And by chapter 192 of the laws of the State of New York of the session of 1862, passed April 12, the legislature specifically appropriated the sum of $1,250,000 "for the redemption of comptroller's bonds issued for loans to the treasury in anticipation of the State tax to provide for the public defense, imposed by chapter 277 of the laws of 1861, reimbursable, viz, $100,000 on the 1st day of June and $1,150,000 on the 1st day of July, 1862, and the further sum of $91,320.84 for the payment of the accruing interest on said bonds."

IX.

Of the remainder of the above sum of $2,873,501.19 necessarily expended by the State of New York, for the purpose aforesaid, between April, 1861, and January, 1862, after deducting the amount of $1,250,000, raised by issue of bonds, the sum of $1,623,501.19 was taken from the canal fund, so called, of the State, which fund, under the constitution of the State, is a sinking fund for the ultimate payment of what is known as the canal debt of the State.

Under the tax rate of 1860 there had been levied and collected and paid into the treasury of the State the sum of $2,039,663.06 for the benefit of and to the credit of the canal fund, which moneys reached the treasury of the State in April and May, 1861, and were then in the treasury to be invested by the State officers, pursuant to the requirements of law and the constitution of the State, in securities for the benefit of the canal fund, and the interest accruing on which must be paid into that fund, and on May 21, 1861, the lieutenant-governor, comptroller, treasurer, and the attorney-general, who constituted the commissioners of the canal fund, authorized the comptroller to use $2,000,000 of the canal-fund moneys for military purposes until the 1st day of October next, and $1,000,000 until the 1st day of January, 1862, at 5 per cent, and of this amount the sum of $1,623,501.19 was used by the comptroller for the purpose of defraying the expenses of raising and equipping such troops. The following is the order:

STATE OF NEW YORK, CANAL DEPARTMENT,
Albany, May 21, 1861.

The comptroller is to be permitted to use $2,000,000 of the canal-fund moneys for military purposes until the 1st day of October next, when the commissioners of the canal fund will invest $1,000,000 of the canal sinking fund under section 1, article 7, in the tax levied for military purposes until July 1, 1862, at 5 per cent, and the comptroller may use $1,000,000 of the tax levied to pay interest on the $12,000,000 debt until January 1, 1862, when the commissioners will, if they have the means, replace that or as large an amount as they may have the means to do it with from the toll of the next fiscal year, so as that the whole advance from the canal fund on account of the tax be $2,000,000. It is understood the comptroller will retain the taxes now in the process of collection for canal purpose until the above investments are made, paying the funds 5 per cent interest therefor.

Indorsed: We assent to the within-named arrangement. Albany, May 22, 1861.

R. CAMPBELL,
Lieutenant-Governor.
ROBERT DENNISTON,
P. DORSHEIMER,
CHS. G. MYERS,
Commissioners of the Canal Fund.

On December 28, 29, and 31, 1861, the United States repaid to the State, on account of moneys so expended, the sum of $1,113,000, leaving the sum of $510,501.19 unpaid of the moneys which had been used from the canal fund, and which sum was placed to the canal fund, with interest, on April 4, 1862.

The amount of interest at 5 per cent per annum on the moneys so used of the canal fund during the time it was used by the State for the public defense, in raising troops, was $48,187.13. But during the same time the State had received interest on portions of the money while it was lying in bank unused to the amount of $8,319.95, and the net deficiency of the State on account of interest on such moneys during the period which they were so used was $39,867.18, which sum was paid into the canal fund from the State treasury, April 4, 1861.

X.

The total amount of the sums so paid by the State of New York, for interest upon its bonds issued in anticipation of the tax for the public defense, and of the amount placed by it in the canal fund for moneys used of that fund, as aforesaid, for the purpose of defraying the expenses of raising and equipping such troops, is $131,188.02, and no part of the same has been paid to the State of New York by the United States, nor has the State been reimbursed therefor, or for any part thereof, by the United States.

XI.

On September 5, 1861, the Federal War Department, by a general order, directed all persons having authority to raise volunteer regiments, batteries, or companies

in the State of New York to report to Hon. Edwin D. Morgan, governor of the State, at Albany, and they and their commands were placed under the command of Governor Morgan, who was given authority to reorganize them and prepare them for the service in such manner as he might deem most advantageous for the interests of the General Government.

The order also provided that all commissioned officers of such regiments, batteries, or companies now in service raised in the State of New York independent of the State authorities, might receive commissions from the governor of the State by reporting to the adjutant-general of the State and filing in his office a duplicate of the muster rolls of their respective organizations.

XII.

On September 28, 1861, Governor Morgan was commissioned a major-general in the military service of the United States, and on October 26, 1861, a new military department was created, to be called the Department of the State of New York, and placed under command of Governor Morgan, as major-general of volunteers in the service of the United States, with headquarters at Albany.

XIII.

On June 27, 1861, Hon. William H. Seward, Secretary of State of the United States, telegraphed to Governor Morgan acknowledging that New York had furnished 50,000 troops for service in the war of the rebellion, and thanking the governor for his efforts in that direction, and on July 25, 1861, Secretary Seward telegraphed Governor Morgan: "Buy arms and equipments as fast as you can. We pay all." And on July 27, 1861, that "Treasury notes for part advances will be furnished on your call for them." And on August 16, 1861, Hon. Simon Cameron, then Secretary of War of the United States, telegraphed to Governor Morgan: "Adopt such measures as may be necessary to fill up your regiments as rapidly as possible. We need the men. Let me know the best the Empire State can do to aid the country in the present emergency." On February 11, 1862, Hon. Edwin M. Stanton, Secretary of War, telegraphed Governor Morgan: "The Government will refund the State for the advances for troops as speedily as the Treasurer can obtain funds for that purpose."

Governor Morgan continued to be major-general of volunteers in the Federal military service until about the expiration of his term of office as governor on the first day of January, 1863, when he tendered his resignation, which was subsequently accepted.

XIV.

The moneys above specified, which were actually expended by the State of New York, were necessarily paid out and expended for the purpose of enlisting, enrolling, subsisting, clothing, supplying, arming, equipping, paying, and transporting such troops, and causing them to be mustered into the military service of the United States, where they were employed in aiding to suppress the insurrection which then existed against the Government of the United States, known as the war of the rebellion, and were so paid and expended at the request of the civil and military authorities of the United States.

XV.

A large portion of such expenditures were made and incurred by the Hon. Edwin D. Morgan, governor of the State, while acting in that capacity, and pursuant to his authority as such major-general,

XVI.

Prior to January 3, 1889, the State of New York had presented, from time to time, various claims and accounts to the Treasury Department of the United States for settlement and allowance, for the charges and expenses incurred by it in enlisting, enrolling, arming, equipping, and mustering into the military service of the United States such troops, which claims amounted in aggregate to $2,950,479.46, and included charges for all the moneys paid and placed as hereinbefore specified.

That such Department has allowed thereon, from time to time, various sums, amounting in the aggregate to $2,775,915.24, leaving a balance of $174,564.22, not

allowed, and the claims and accounts for which were pending in said Department unadjusted on said 3d day of January, 1889.

That of said sum of $174,564.22 not allowed by the Treasury Department, the sums hereinbefore specified, amounting to $131,188.02, constituted a part, and on said 3d day of January, 1889, the Hon. Charles S. Fairchild, then Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, transmitted to this court, under section 1063 of the Revised Statutes of the United States, the said claim of the State of New York, so pending in said Department, for said sum of $131,188.02, together with the vouchers, proofs, and documents relating thereto on file in said Department, to be proceeded with in this court according to law.

The claim of the State of New York for expenditures and expenses in furnishing troops with clothing and munitions of war, as set forth in the foregoing findings, was filed in the Treasury Department in May, 1862, which claim included said items for interest, and said claim for interest has from said time been suspended in said Department, and was so suspended at the time the matter was transmitted to this court.

CONCLUSION OF LAW.

Upon the foregoing findings the court determines as a conclusion of law that the claimant is entitled to recover the sum of $91,320.84.

OPINION.

WELDON, *J.*, delivered the opinion of the court.

The petition alleges that the defendants became indebted to the claimant on the 1st day of July, 1862, for money laid out and expended to and for the use of defendants, at their request, in the sum of $3,131,188.02, and of this there has been paid the sum of $3,000,000, leaving a balance due the petitioner of $131,188.02.

It is further alleged that the necessity of said expenditure grew out of the wants of the Government in the early part of the civil war, and that for the purpose of maintaining national authority, through their proper officers, said defendants requested the State of New York, in common with other States, to provide means and munitions of war for the use of the Government; that in pursuance of such request the claimant did provide and render to the United States a large number of troops, and did equip the same with arms, clothing, and munitions of war, and did also render to the Government arms and munitions in addition to such as were required for the use of troops enrolled in the State of New York; that in equipping said troops and in furnishing said material for other troops the said State expended the sum of $3,000,000; that in complying with said request so made by the defendants, in furnishing equipments for troops, the claimant was compelled to borrow a large part of said sum, there not being in the treasury of said State funds sufficient to meet said expenditure; that bonds of said State were issued upon which claimant was compelled and did pay a large amount of interest, to wit, the sum of $131,188.02; that under the act of Congress of July 27, 1861, a portion of the expenditure of said claimant has been paid by defendants, but there still remains unpaid a portion of the costs, charges, and expenses properly incurred by said State in enrolling, subsisting, clothing, supplying, arming, equipping, paying, and transporting said troops as aforesaid, to wit, the amount paid by the State of New York for interest, the said sum of $131,188.02; that after the payment of said sum, and within six years from such payment, a claim for said amount was presented to the Secretary of the Treasury and such proceedings were thereon had in the Treasury Department, and before the proper officer thereof, to wit, the Second Comptroller; that on or about the 23d day of December, 1869, the question of said claim for interest so paid by the State of New York as aforesaid against the United States was suspended, subject to future decision, and thereafter on or about the 7th day of June, 1882, the said claim and the question of the validity thereof was presented to the Attorney-General of the United States for his opinion, and said Attorney-General thereafter, and on or about the 23d day of July, 1883, rendered his opinion thereon, and the same was filed in the Treasury Department of the United States, which opinion is to the effect that said claim of the State of New York does not come within the provisions of the act of July 27, 1861. Thereafter such proceedings were had in the Treasury Department in the matter of said claim; that at the request of said claimant, by its attorney in fact, on or about the 3d day of January, 1889, the Secretary of the Treasury did, under the provisions of section 1063 of the Revised Statutes of the United States, transmit the said claim, with all the vouchers, papers, proofs, and documents pertaining thereto, to the Court of Claims, there to be proceeded in accordance with law.

The findings in substance tend to maintain the allegations of the petitions except in the amount actually paid by claimant as interest on the funds used in the purchase of material and the payment of expenses incident to the equipment of troops.

Of said $131,188.02 the sum of $39,867.18 is based upon the following state of facts:

Under the tax rate of 1860 of said State there had been levied, collected, and paid into the treasury of said State the sum of $2,039,663.06 for the benefit of the canal fund, which money reached the treasury in April and May, 1861, and was then in the treasury, to be invested by certain State officers, pursuant to the law and requirements of the constitution of the State, in securities for the benefit of the canal fund.

On the 21st day of May, 1861, the lieutenant-governor, comptroller, treasurer, and attorney-general, who constituted the commissioners of the canal fund, authorized the comptroller to use $2,000,000 of the canal fund money for military purposes until the 1st day of October following, and $1,000,000 until the 1st day of January, 1862, at 5 per cent, and of this amount the sum of $1,623,501.19 was used by the comptroller for the purpose of defraying the expense in raising and equipping troops as aforesaid.

On December 28, 29, and 31, 1861, the United States repaid to the State, on account of moneys so expended, the sum of $1,113,000, leaving the sum of $510,501.19 unpaid of the moneys which had been used from the canal fund, and which sum was placed to the canal fund, with interest, on April 4, 1862.

The total amount of interest on the moneys so used from the canal fund, during the time that it was used by the State for the public defense in raising troops, was $48,187.13. But during the same time the State received interest on some portions of the money while it was lying in bank to the amount of $8,319.95, and the net deficiency of the State, on account of interest on such moneys during the period which they were used is $39,867.18, which sum was paid into the canal fund from the State treasury April 4, 1862.

The order made by said State officers under and by virtue of which the money of the canal fund was appropriated is as follows:

STATE OF NEW YORK, CANAL DEPARTMENT,
Albany, May 21, 1861.

The comptroller is to be permitted to use $2,000,000 of the canal fund moneys for military purposes until the 1st day of October next, when the commissioners of the canal fund will invest $1,000,000 of the canal sinking fund under section 1, article 7, in the tax levied for military purposes until the 1st of July, 1862, at 5 per cent, and the comptroller may use $1,000,000 of the tax levied to pay interest on the $12,000,000 debt until the 1st of January, 1862, when the commissioners will, if they have the means, replace that or as large an amount as they may have the means to do it with from the toll of the next fiscal year, so as that the whole advance from the canal fund on account of the tax be $2,000,000. It is understood the comptroller will retain the taxes now in the process of collection for canal purposes until the above investments are made, paying the funds 5 per cent interest therefor.

Indorsed: We assent to the within-named arrangement. Albany, May 22, 1861.

R. CAMPBELL,
Lieutenant-Governor.
ROBERT DENNISON,
P. DORSHEIMER,
CHS. G. MYERS,
Commissioners of the Canal Fund.

The amount of money actually paid as interest on the bonds issued is $91,320.84, and the amount of interest credited to and paid into the canal fund for the money used of said canal fund is $39,867.18; those two sums make in the aggregate the sum of $131,188.02, and for that amount this proceeding was commenced and is prosecuted.

Incident to the commencement of the civil war, which was inaugurated in its hostilities by the bombardment of Fort Sumter by the Confederate forces, there arose an emergency and crisis in the history and condition of the United States which called for the most effective and vigorous measures of military preparation on the part of the Federal power to maintain its authority and to preserve from dismemberment the Union of the States. And although the requisition of the 75,000 troops provided for in the first proclamation of the President was thought to be adequate, the subsequent development and magnitude of the insurrection demonstrated the inability of that force to accomplish the purpose of reestablishing the national supremacy in the States assuming to exercise the right of secession and the maintenance of that right by military force.

At the time of the commencement of the war Congress was not in session, and the Executive Department was compelled to avail itself of all the constitutional means

within its power to deal with an existing state of hostility, and for that purpose, on the 15th of April, 1861, the President issued a proclamation calling for the militia of the several States "in order to suppress combinations and cause the laws to be duly executed."

Upon the same day the legislature of New York passed an act making an appropriation of $3,000,000 to be applied in the expenditure for arms, supplies, and equipments for the soldiers mustered into the service of the United States in the suppression of the rebellion; and every assurance was given by the executive branch of the Government that the State would be reimbursed in its expenditures in complying with the requirements of the President.

The same proclamation which called for 75,000 men called an extra session of Congress for the 4th day of July following; and in pursuance of that proclamation the first session of the Thirty-seventh Congress was held.

On the 27th day of July, 1861, Congress passed an act entitled "An act to indemnify the States for expenses incurred by them in defense of the United States," as follows:

"That the Secretary of the Treasury be, and is hereby, directed, out of any moneys in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, to pay to the governor of any State, or its duly authorized agents, the costs, charges, and expenses properly incurred by said State for enrolling, subsisting, clothing, supplying, arming, equipping, paying, and transporting its troops employed in aiding in suppressing the present insurrection against the United States, to be settled upon proper vouchers to be filed and passed upon by the proper accounting officers of the Treasury." (12 St. L., p. 276.)

On the 8th of March, 1862, Congress passed a joint resolution as follows:

"Whereas doubts have arisen as to the true intent and meaning of an act entitled 'An act to indemnify the States for expenses incurred by them in defense of the United States,' approved July 27, 1861:

"*Be it resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives in Congress assembled*, That the said act shall be construed to apply to expenses incurred as well after as before the date of the approval thereof."

Some question was made in the brief and oral argument of the counsel for the defendants as to proper pendency in this court of these proceedings because of the statute of limitations.

In the case of Finn *v.* The United States, 123 U. S. R., 227, it is decided:

"It is a condition or qualification of the right to a judgment against the United States in the Court of Claims that the claimant, when not laboring under any one of the disabilities named in the statute, voluntarily put his claim in suit or present it to the proper Department for settlement within six years after suit could be commenced thereon against the United States."

The findings in the present case show that in 1862, in less than one year after the origin of the claim, the claimant presented it to the proper Department for adjudication and payment, and that from that time until the commencement of this case it was pending in the Department as an unadjusted claim. The State never abandoned it, and the United States, through its proper officers, never formally rejected it. It was pending in the Treasury Department, within the meaning of the decisions of the Supreme Court and this court, at the time it was transmitted under the order of the Secretary of the Treasury, as shown in the record.

It was not *res judicata*, and does not come within the law laid down in the case of Jackson *v.* The United States (19 Ct. Cls., 504), and State of Illinois *v.* The United States (20 Ct. Cls., 342).

The court having jurisdiction of the claim, it must be disposed of on its merits.

It is manifest, from the legislation, that Congress intended to approve the action of the Executive Department, in the assurance, that the States would be reimbursed in their expenditures incident to the enrollment of the militia in defense of the national authority.

It is not necessary to examine and discuss the obligations of the States, in such an unprecedented condition of the Federal Government. It is sufficient to assume that the liability of the defendants in this case depends upon the construction of the act of 1861 and the joint resolution of 1862.

If the claim comes within the scope and terms of the act of 1862 the plaintiff has the right to recover; if it does not, there is no liability.

The aggregate of the demand is $131,188.02, and is composed of two items originating in different forms.

Ninety-one thousand three hundred and twenty dollars and eighty-four cents compose a claim for interest paid by the State, on bonds issued by it for the purpose of raising money to defray the expense incident to the enrollment of the soldiers for the national service.

The findings show that the Treasury of the State of New York, at the time the call was made, was deficient in the funds requisite to meet the expense, and that it was necessary to negotiate bonds at 7 per cent interest, to supply that deficiency. The said sum of $91,320 is the amount of interest paid on those bonds.

The other item, $39,867.18, of the claim is for an alleged expense growing out of the use of certain funds coming into the treasury of the State prior to October 1, 1861, and which were to be invested by the State officers pursuant to the requirements of law and the constitution of the State in securities for the benefit of the canal fund.

In connection with this item of claim it may be said that no interest was paid by the State of New York; it simply failed to realize for the benefit of the canal fund certain interest which, by the investment of the money appropriated for the use of the defendants, it might otherwise have saved to that fund.

We will consider the rights of the claimant as to each demand separately. It is contended on the part of the claimant that both items come legitimately within "costs, charges, and expenses," as provided by the act of July, 1861, while the defendants insist, that as to both items of claim, it is an attempt to compel the United States to pay interest on an alleged obligation, where they have not expressly agreed to do so.

Section 1091, R. S., provides:

"No interest shall be allowed on any claim up to the time of the rendition of judgment thereon by the Court of Claims, unless upon a contract expressly stipulating for the payment of interest."

In the case of Tillson *v.* United States (100 U. S. R., 43), it was in substance decided:

"Where the claim of a party for loss and damage growing out of the alleged failure of the United States to perform its contracts with him, as to time and manner of payment is, by special act of Congress, referred to the Court of Claims 'to investigate the same, and to ascertain, determine, and adjudge the amount equitably due, if any, for such loss and damage,'—*Held*, that the rules of law applicable to the adjudication of claims by that court in the exercise of its general jurisdiction must govern, and that interest, not having been stipulated for in the contracts, can not be allowed thereon."

It is not necessary to speculate upon the question of the liability of the Government, for the payment of interest as such. The statute and decisions are plain and uniform on that subject, and unless there is an express contract to that effect no interest can be recovered. If this demand is in law a claim for interest, in the common and judicial sense of that term, there being no express undertaking to pay interest, in and by the words of the statute, on which the suit is based, and from which the obligation is deduced, no liability exists. It is contended by the claimant's counsel that this is not a proceeding to recover interest as such, but that the demand comes within that clause of the statute providing indemnification to the State for "costs, charges, and expenses" incurred by it in furnishing troops under the call of the President.

A liability upon the part of the Government to pay interest can not arise from implication, for the reason the statute defining the jurisdiction of the court, expressly declares, that no interest shall be allowed on any claim up to the rendition of the judgment thereon, in the Court of Claims, unless upon a contract expressly stipulating for interest.

Regarding the statute, as having the force of a contract, it has no provision from which by construction, it can be inferred, that the defendants assumed to pay the claimant any interest as such, upon any advances made by it, in defraying the expenses of the troops furnished the United States in pursuance to the proclamation of the President.

The law being that the Government does not pay interest except where the contract or statute expressly provides for the payment of interest, it is unnecessary to examine the many cases referred to by the very able argument of the counsel for the Government. If this is a proceeding to enforce the payment of interest, then the authorities relied on by the defendants are conclusively decisive of this case, and the judgment must be for the defendants.

It was not the duty of the State of New York, as one of the States of the Federal Union, acting independently to suppress the insurrection of 1861; but it was its duty to comply with all constitutional requisitions of the central government, in its efforts to maintain the authority of the United States, and to enforce the law of federal jurisdiction.

The findings show, that in responding to the call of the President for men and means, the authorities of the State did everything in their power to comply with the Federal requisition, and in so doing not only availed themselves of the taxing power of the State, but the public credit of the State government sought the money market to replenish the treasury of the State in defraying the expenses incident to the call of the President.

In appreciation of the alacrity with which the authorities acted, Congress on the 27th of July, 1861, twenty-three days after the convention of the Houses, passed the act upon which the claimant now seeks satisfaction and compensation.

It is alleged on the part of the claimant that—

"The act of July 27, 1861, constitutes a statutory contract of indemnity on the part of the United States with the several States furnishing troops as therein specified, and the payments made by the State of New York, for which this claim is filed, having been actually and necessarily made for the purpose contemplated by that act, they became part of the expenditures made by the State which the Federal Government has obligated itself to reimburse." (Huidekoper's Lessee v. Douglas, 3 Cranch, R. 1-70.)

The demand of the claimant does not necessarily require that it should maintain the full legal import of this proposition, as the statute of our jurisdiction provides that this court shall have jurisdiction of "all claims founded upon the Constitution of the United States or on any law of Congress." (24 Stat. L., 505.)

If by the terms of the act of July, 1861, Congress assumed to pay the claimant the kind and character of charges represented by the interest paid by the State, and have not done so, the right of the State to recover is clear and unquestionable; and the only question for us to decide in this connection is, whether the payment of interest on bonds issued by the claimant comes within the terms "costs, charges, and expenses properly incurred by said State."

In determining that question, we must not lose sight of the fundamental proposition of law, that the Government is not liable for interest, unless it has expressly obligated itself to pay interest, and it is not pretended that it has done so in this matter. Whatever may be said in the construction of this statute, the fact remains, that the claimant in the payment of interest to its bondholders disbursed and expended its money, as effectually, as though it had paid money directly from the treasury, to some person from whom it had purchased clothing and munitions of war.

If the State of New York had limited its effort in complying with the request of the General Government, to its actual resources of money in the Treasury, it might have been the performance of its duty literally; but if the resources of its credit were opened to it, and it did not avail itself of that resource, the spirit of its obligation would have been violated to the detriment of the public service, and perhaps to the prejudice of the final success of the Federal power. The statute, it will be observed, is broad and liberal in the use of terms defining the obligation of the United States, "costs, charges and expenses."

In the construction of a law somewhat similar to the act of July, 1861, Mr. Wirt, Attorney-General of the United States, gave an opinion stating:

"In construing this law, it is proper to advert to the principle on which it was founded, and to the object which it proposes to effect. The principle is this: The United States are bound by the relation which subsists between the General and State governments to provide the means of carrying on war, and, as a part of the business of war, to provide for the defense of the several States. When the United States fails to make such provision, and the States have to defend themselves by means of their own resources, the expenditure thus incurred forms a debt against the United States which they are bound to reimburse. If the expenditures made for such purpose are supplied from the treasury of the States, the United States reimburse the principal without interest; *but if, being itself unable, from the condition of its own finances to meet the emergency, such State has been obliged to borrow money for the purpose, and thus to incur a debt on which she herself has had to pay interest, such debt is essentially a debt due by the United States, and both the principal and interest are to be paid by the United States. So that whenever a State has had to pay interest by reason of her taking the place of the United States in time of war, such interest forms a just charge against the United States. If a State borrows the money at once, on the first occurrence of the emergency, and expends the specific money so borrowed, both the borrowing and the expenditure being* flagrante bello, *there seems to be no doubt that the claim, both for the principal and the interest, which she would have paid upon such loan, would be a fair charge against the United States on the principle of this law.*" (1 Op. Att'y Gen., 723.)

Although this opinion was given before the statute forbidding the payment of interest was passed (March 3, 1863, Revised Statutes, 1091), it is important to be considered in making a legal distinction between interest actually paid and interest on funds in the Treasury at the time the requisition was made.

"It has been the general rule of the officers of the Government in adjusting and allowing unliquidated and disputed claims against the United States to refuse to give interest. That this rule is sometimes at variance with that which governs the acts of private citizens in a court of justice would not authorize us to depart from it in this case. The rule, however, is not mere form, and especially is it not so in regard to claims allowed by special acts of Congress, or referred by such acts to some Department or officer for settlement." (McKee's Case, 91 U. S. R., 442, and 11 C. Cls. R., 72.)

In the performance of the duty under the call, the officers of the State purchased the required munitions of war so long as they had funds; and when they had no money, the Government still needing the supply, they paid out money for the use of

money, in order that the State might fully discharge every possible duty in the restoration of Federal authority. The payment of interest was a cost properly incurred by the claimants under the requisition of the President, and comes within the letter of the act of July, 1861, and for that item the claimants have a right to recover.

The second item of claim for $39,867.18 originates in a different form. There was no absolute payment of interest. Under the State policy of New York a portion of the tax is devoted to what is called the canal fund, and upon this fund the State is in the habit of receiving interest, the same being loaned for the benefit of that fund.

The appropriation of the canal fund for the purpose of defraying the expense of equipping the troops of the United States was in the pursuance of the following order:

STATE OF NEW YORK, CANAL DEPARTMENT,
Albany, May 21, 1861.

The comptroller is to be permitted to use $2,000,000 of the canal-fund moneys for military purposes until the 1st day of October next, when the commissioners of the canal fund will invest $1,000,000 of the canal sinking fund, under section 1, article 7, in the tax levied for military purposes until the 1st of July, 1862, at 5 per cent, and the comptroller may use $1,000,000 of the tax levied to pay interest on the $12,000,000 debt until the 1st of January, 1862, when the commissioners will, if they have the means, replace that or as large an amount as they may have the means to do it with from the toll of the next fiscal year, so as that the whole advance from the canal fund on account of the tax be $2,000,000. It is understood the comptroller will retain the taxes now in the process of collection for canal purposes until the above investments are made, paying the funds 5 per cent interest therefor.

Indorsed: We assent to the within-named arrangement. Albany, May 22, 1861.

R. CAMPBELL,
Lieutenant Governor.
ROBERT DENNISTON,
P. DORSHEIMER,
CHAS. G. MYERS,
Commissioners of the Canal Fund.

The amount of interest on the money so used of the canal fund during the time it was used by the State for the public defense in raising troops was $48,187.13. But during the same time the State had received interest on a portion of the funds while it was lying in a bank unused to the amount of $8,319.95, and the net deficiency to the State on account of the interest on such money is $39,867.18.

Upon the payment of the money into the treasury, from which this interest would have accumulated, it became the money of the State, and would have so remained after it became a part of the canal fund. While different departments are provided in the State, as well as the National Government, they constitute a part of an indivisible unity, and transactions between the different departments are the official act of the same political power.

The money is transferred from one department to another or from one fund to another, but it can not be said that by the transfer there is a lending of money upon which, by any fiction of law-interest can be calculated. By the use of the canal fund for the purpose of defraying the expense of raising troops the State simply appropriated from a particular fund, which, if permitted to become a part of that fund, might have been loaned on interest. It can not be said that the United States borrowed the money, at the agreed rate of interest, which other customers would have paid the State, as there is no express or implied obligation to that effect. The State paid no money directly for the use of the money belonging to the canal fund. There may have been an accounting to that fund from some other financial resource of the State, but that transaction was entirely between the different departments of the government which constitute the political organization of the State of New York.

If an allowance is made for the loss on that fund, it is in effect an allowance of interest against the United States on an obligation, in and by which they have not expressly agreed to pay interest. During the time the money was diverted from the canal fund to the purposes of the United States the State simply lost the use of that amount. The interest charged on the trust fund can not be said to be an "expense incurred" within the meaning of the law of 1861, as the State did not assume any liability, nor pay any money beyond the actual funds appropriated and paid in the purchase of materials, and the payment of the expenses of the transportation of troops. In the claim for $91,320.84 a different element exists. The claimant actually paid that amount of money to creditors who had advanced money on the bonds of the State, which had been issued to defray the costs, charges, and expenses properly incurred "by the State in enrolling, subsisting, clothing, supplying, paying, and transporting" troops employed by the defendants in suppressing the insurrection against the authorities of the United States.

In the discussion and determination of the question of the liability of the United States to remunerate the claimant, we must not lose sight of what is so fundamental,

not only in the laws of the United States and decisions of the Supreme Court, but in the jurisdiction of this court—that the defendants are not liable for interest as such, unless they have expressly agreed to pay interest. In subordination to that well-established principle of the law, the purpose and construction of the act of 1861 must be ascertained and determined. Whatever may be said of the liability of the defendants, in the absence of said statute, on the first item of claim, it is clear that for the second they would not be liable, because it is for interest upon an obligation in which they have not expressly agreed to pay interest.

In the legal statement of a cause of action, founded upon the transaction of 1861, between the plaintiff and defendants, the pleading must necessarily allege that the $39,867.13 was interest upon certain advances made by the State, which interest was lost by the claimant, because the money was not invested in interest-bearing obligations due the State. The marked difference between the two items of claim is, that in one there was an actual payment of money by the State, in complying with the requisition of the General Government, while in the other there was no payment but a failure to receive interest, because of a diversion of the fund as herein indicated.

It does not affirmatively appear that the fund upon which the claim of $39,867.18 is based could, for the period of time it was used by the State for the benefit of the defendants, have been loaned; and if during that period other money of that fund was unemployed, the said fund would have been a surplus in the treasury of the State, and no interest was lost to the claimant.

It has been the rule of the Department and the policy of the Government not to pay interest upon claims against the United States, founded on the reason that the Government is always ready to pay all just claims, and if such claims are not paid, it is the fault of the claimant in not presenting his claim in apt time or in not presenting in such a way as to convince the officers of the Government of its lawfulness and justice.

It will be observed that Mr. Attorney-General Wirt makes the distinction between the payment of interest upon money borrowed to enable the State to discharge its duty and fulfil its obligation and interest upon funds in the treasury of the State appropriated for the use and benefit of the United States. The allowance of interest "as expenses, charges, and costs," in the construction of the act, is in derogation of the general policy of the Government in not paying interest, and should not be extended beyond the logical limits of the act of 1861.

The Chief Justice is of opinion that—

"The claimant is seeking indirectly to recover interest contrary to Revised Statutes, section 1091, which prohibits its allowance 'unless upon a contract expressly stipulating for payment of interest.'

"The case was transmitted to this court by the Secretary of the Treasury as a claim for interest alone.

"Interest on temporary loans made to obtain money for equipping, etc., troops for the United States is no more a charge against the Government, under the act of 1861 (12 Stat. L., 276), than is interest on long-time bonds issued by many States for the same purpose, computed to time of payment by the Government, for which it is conceded the United States are not liable.

"In either case interest paid constitutes no part of the 'costs, charges, and expenses *properly incurred* by said State for enrolling, subsisting, clothing, supplying, arming, equipping, and transporting its troops' within the meaning of the act. It is paid for another purpose, to wit, for the use of money raised to supply an empty treasury; and indirect expenditure, dependent upon collateral contingencies, upon the different conditions of the treasuries, and the different and uncertain legislation of the several States; for raising money by taxation, obviously not within the contemplation of Congress, and never allowed by the Treasury Department to any State under this act.

"An unequal application of the statute in the different States could not have been intended by Congress.

"If the claim be not for interest, within the intent and meaning of Revised Statutes, section 1091, then, as a one for the cost of supplying money to the State treasury, it is not unlike a claim for the cost of assessing and collecting taxes for the same object, which, it is apprehended, nobody would contend could be maintained under the act of 1861.

"Decisions of the courts and opinions of the attorneys-general before the enactment of the prohibition against allowing interest, and before the passage of the act upon which this suit is founded, or independently of them, can have no bearing on this case, which must be governed by the existing statutes and the intention of Congress."

It is the judgment of the court that the claimant recover the sum of $91,320.84, and that the $39,867.13 be disallowed.

Nott, J., concurring:

The term interest covers two distinct things: compensation for the use of money by express agreement, damages allowed by law for the nonpayment of a debt after it has become due. It is the latter which is prohibited in this court, in suits against the Government, by the Revised Statutes, section 1091.

As to the first item of money expended in the payment of interest upon the bonds of the State which were sold to raise money for the General Government I concur in the opinion of my brother Weldon. As to the second item of money expended in the payment of interest upon a loan obtained from the canal commissioners for the use of the Government I dissent.

The grounds upon which I dissent are: (1) That in order to shield the defendants from making good this loss it is necessary to hold that a State government can do an unconstitutional act, or, to express it differently, that the unconstitutional act of State authorities must be deemed the act of the State itself; (2) that a substantial loss has been incurred here by the claimant, which the defendants are in honor and good conscience bound to make good, and the intent of the act of indemnity is that the loyal States which acted on behalf of the General Government during the civil war shall be reimbursed and made whole; (3) that the restriction of the Revised Statutes (section 1091) prohibiting the recovery of interest as damages in suits against the Government is not applicable to this case inasmuch as the contract loaning the money expressly provides for the payment of interest and was ratified by the acceptance of the money and the payment of the principal.

In the application of the act of indemnity to the case the initial fact of the transaction must be borne in mind. The State of New York was not a corporation whose business was to raise and equip troops for any government that chanced to be engaged in a civil war, but, on the contrary, the President of the United States, in the awful crises of the hour, went to the State officers and asked that the resources of the State be given in aid of the General Government. The legislature was not then in session, and the State officers had no authority, constitutional or legal, to pledge the credit of the State or involve it in financial liability. From motives of the highest patriotism they assumed an enormous responsibility and proceeded to act on behalf of the General Government. But in their action they were not the agents of the State, nor acting on its behalf, nor assuming to promote its interest. If they were anybody's agents, they were the agents of the General Government, and for their unauthorized acts the General Government is in law and morals and under the terms of this act of indemnity bound to make good the losses which the unauthorized acts of these officers caused the State.

This, then, being the status of the parties, the governor and comptroller proceeded to borrow money, not for the use and benefit of the State, nor by its authority, nor at its request, but for the use and benefit and at the request of the General Government. They borrowed from two sources, from ordinary lenders who had money to invest, by selling them the interest-bearing bonds of the State, and from a board of trustees known as the commissioners of the canal fund, who had moneys in their hands to loan on interest-bearing securities and only on interest-bearing securities. In course of time these loans matured, and the State assumed and paid them, principal and interest. The General Government under the act of indemnity has paid the principal which the State expended for its use, but has refused to pay the interest.

When the General Government requested the State officers to act in its behalf they might have proceeded in one of three different ways. They might have bought the military supplies on an indefinite credit and allowed the vendor to add the unknown and undetermined interest to the price; they might have purchased by contracts bearing interest which would run until the price should be paid by the General Government; they might have borrowed money on interest and bought the goods at the lowest price for cash. As to the first method, there can be no question that if it had been pursued the Government would have been liable for the price paid. As to the second method, there can hardly be a question as to the Government's liability for both principal and interest. As to the third method, it is the one which has occasioned the controversy of the present suit. Yet from a business point of view the first method was the worst, and the third, as every man of business knows, was the best. The eminent merchant who was then the governor of the State proceeded as he would have proceeded for a brother merchant. He raised the money, and went into the market and purchased at the lowest cash price.

The money which the State of New York, through its officers, thus expended at the request and for the use of the United States was not in its treasury, but was procured from two sources:

First, the State issued and sold its own bonds, bearing 7 per cent interest. The General Government lost nothing by that. The credit of the State was better than the credit of the General Government, and a saving was effected by the State loaning its own credit for the procurement of the necessary funds. It was able at that time both to buy and to borrow on better terms than the principal for whom it was acting. It has charged nothing for the use of its credit thus loaned, and is merely seeking to be repaid the money which it expended.

The second source from which money was procured for the use of the United States was the canal fund of the State of New York. This fund was, so far as the State was concerned, a sinking fund for the reduction of a public debt; but it was also an interest-bearing trust fund pledged to a designated class of creditors. I emphasize the statement that it was an interest-bearing fund; for it was in no sense an accumulation of idle money in one of the coffers of the State, but was in fact and in contemplation of law a mass of interest-bearing securities held and accumulated for the future liquidation of a specific debt, and was at the same time pledged to the holders of the debt. The commissioners of the fund had no right to hoard the money which came to their hands, and had no right to loan it without interest. The scope of their duties was to invest, and to invest at interest, and the purpose of the fund, the chief, if not the sole purpose, was that money from time to time accumulated for the extinction of the canal debt should not lie idle in the treasury of the State, but should be invested in securities which would yield, until the debt matured, that profit which we call interest.

If the State had issued more bonds than it did for money wherewith to serve the General Government, and the canal commissioners had gone into the market and bought these bonds, the circumlocution would doubtless have saved the State from the delay and vexation which beset this branch of the case, and would have made plain to all minds that the State had incurred obligations and loaned its credit and paid interest, not for its own use or benefit, but for the use and benefit of the General Government. Yet this circuity of procedure would not have made the State any better off or the General Government any worse. The principle which would have governed and the result which would have been reached would have been the same.

If this charge of interest had been a mere act of the State officers, whereby the State made interest which otherwise it would not have made, the charge would be in the nature of a profit and beyond the scope of an indemnity. But in the actual case before the court, the canal fund existed long before the General Government came to the State as a borrower. It had been created and was regulated by the constitution of the State. Whoever got money from the canal fund must take it on the terms prescribed by the constitution. Neither the State officers nor the State legislature nor the General Government nor any power known to our constitutional system could take it upon any other terms or authorize it to be taken. Neither could it be applied to any purpose or business of the State; and whatever might be received from a loan in the way of interest did not go into the treasury of the State, but returned to the fund. The State itself had no power over the canal fund. Undoubtedly the State was directly interested in the fund as a public debtor, and undoubtedly the legal title to the fund was vested in the State; but beside the State was another party equally interested in the fund, the public creditors, who had loaned money upon the faith of it and who were in law a *cestui que trust* and in equity the owners of the fund.

Accordingly when the governor and comptroller of the State, who were practically acting as agents of the United States, sought a loan from the canal fund to be expended for the uses and purposes of the General Government, they proposed and agreed to the constitutional condition of interest, and expressly agreed that the loan should bear interest at the rate of 5 per cent. The canal commissioners had no authority to make the loan without interest, and they did not assume to do so; and the State subsequently recognized the obligation which it owed to its creditors and paid the interest on this specific loan out of money raised by taxation; that is to say, the taxpayers of New York made good to the canal fund the interest which would otherwise have been realized from ordinary securities, but the United States have not yet reimbursed them for the taxes that both in form and in fact were devoted to that purpose. These are in brief the ultimate facts of the transaction; the question of law involved is whether the act of indemnity extends to them.

The act of indemnity is not a statute to regulate the purchase of supplies or to restrict the compensation of purchasing agents. If the State of New York had been a merchant selling goods for the sake of profit, or a commission merchant rendering service in consideration of a percentage, it would have to take the profits or losses which legally resulted. But the State rendered its service gratuitously; it had nothing to make and, as the result proves, a risk to bear, and it acted at the request of the Government. The obligation which would rest upon an individual in such a case would be to make the other party whole, and it would be an obligation of the strongest character, legally, equitably, morally. The General Government has recognized this obligation and has passed this act of indemnity. The purpose of an act as of an instrument of indemnity is to make the injured party whole. It is not a grant; it is not one of those statutes in which doubtful words or phrases are to be strictly construed; an interpretation which leaves the injured party without the indemnity which he ought to have is as an interpretation which fails to carry into effect the confessed purpose of the statute. If an individual or a body corporate had accepted

the fruits of the loan and recognized the transaction by paying the principal, his acts would constitute a binding ratification. The act of indemnity must surely be as broad as the legal obligations of the United States.

As has been said, the State was called upon to act for the General Government and acted by borrowing money to raise and equip troops. All of this money was expended in the business and on behalf of the United States. Some of it was borrowed from ordinary lenders by the State selling its own bonds; some of it was borrowed from a trust fund of which the State was the trustee. When the interest on the bonds became due the State took the money of its taxpayers and paid it. When the interest on the other loan became due the State likewise took the money of its taxpayers and paid it also. To that extent the taxpayers of the State are just so much the worse off than they would be if the State officers had never touched the trust fund and borrowed from it for the use of the General Government. Both in form and in substance this interest was money paid. In form the transaction complies with the terms of the act of indemnity; in substance the distinction between interest lost and interest paid is too refined to be applied against the purpose of the statute.

And this distinction necessarily rests on the, constructively, illegal action of the State officers; that is to say, if the custodians of the fund acted in a constitutional and legal manner by loaning the trust moneys in their charge to the United States, through the intermediation of the governor and comptroller of the State, at an agreed rate of interest, the refunding of the interest was an expenditure for the use of the Government; but if they acted in an unconstitutional and illegal manner by diverting, misappropriating, or misapplying the trust fund to State purposes, then the State can not make money out of the transaction, and the General Government is not liable.

SCHOFIELD, J., was absent when this case was argued, and took no part in the decision.

EXHIBIT NO. 2.

[S. 1295, Fifty-third Congress, second session.]

Mr. WHITE, of California, introduced the following bill; which was read twice and referred to the Committee on Military Affairs:

A BILL to reimburse the States of California, Oregon, and Nevada for moneys by them expended in the suppression of the rebellion.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That there is hereby appropriated, out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, the sums hereinafter mentioned, to reimburse and to be paid to the States of California, Oregon, and Nevada for moneys by them expended in aid of the United States in the war of the rebellion, to wit:

To the State of California, the sum of three million nine hundred and fifty-one thousand nine hundred and fifteen dollars and forty-two cents.

To the State of Oregon, the sum of three hundred and thirty-five thousand one hundred and fifty-two dollars and eighty-eight cents.

To the State of Nevada, the sum of four hundred and four thousand and forty dollars and seventy cents, being the sums of money, principal and interest, paid by said States in the suppression of the rebellion as shown by the reports of the Secretary of War in Senate Executive Documents Numbered ten, eleven, and seventeen, Fifty-first Congress, first session.

EXHIBIT NO. 3.

[H. R. 4959, Fifty-third Congress, second session.]

JANUARY 3, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on War Claims and ordered to be printed.

Mr. MAGUIRE introduced the following bill:

A BILL to reimburse the States of California, Oregon, and Nevada for moneys by them expended in the suppression of the rebellion.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That there is hereby appropriated, out of any money in the

Treasury not otherwise appropriated, the sums hereinafter mentioned, to reimburse and to be paid to the States of California, Oregon, and Nevada for moneys by them expended in aid of the United States in the war of the rebellion, to wit:

To the State of California, the sum of three million nine hundred and fifty-one thousand nine hundred and fifteen dollars and forty-two cents.

To the State of Oregon, the sum of three hundred and thirty-five thousand one hundred and fifty-two dollars and eighty-eight cents.

To the State of Nevada, the sum of four hundred and four thousand and forty dollars and seventy cents, being the sums of money, principal and interest, paid by said States in the suppression of the rebellion as shown by the reports of the Secretary of War in Senate Executive Documents Numbered ten, eleven, and seventeen, Fifty-first Congress, first session.

EXHIBIT No. 4.

[House Report No. 558, Fifty-third Congress, second session.]

MARCH 8, 1894.—Committed to the Committee of the Whole House on the state of the Union and ordered to be printed.

Mr. HERMANN, from the Committee on War Claims, submitted the following report, to accompany H. R. 4959:

The Committee on War Claims, to whom was referred the bills (H. R. 2615 and H. R. 4959) to reimburse the States of California, Oregon, and Nevada for moneys by them expended in the suppression of the rebellion when aiding the United States to maintain the "common defense" on the Pacific coast, have examined the same and report as follows:

The facts out of which the aforesaid State war claims arise have been very fully stated in several reports heretofore made to the House of Representatives and to the Senate, as follows, to wit, House Report No. 254 and Senate Report No. 158, Fifty-second Congress, first session; House Report No. 2553 and Senate Report No. 644, Fifty-first Congress, first session; and House Report No. 3396 and Senate Reports No. 1286 and No. 2014, Fiftieth Congress, first session.

Bills relating to these State war claims of these three Pacific coast States passed the Senate during the first session of the Fiftieth Congress, and were favorably reported to the Senate during the first session of the Fifty-first and Fifty-second Congresses and to the House during the Fiftieth, Fifty-first, and Fifty-second Congresses, but were not reached for consideration by the House in either thereof. These bills were introduced in the House, to wit, H. R. No. 2615, on 11th day of September, 1893, by Mr. Caminetti, of California, and H. R. No. 4959, on January 3, 1894, by Mr. Maguire, of California, and both referred to the House Committee on War Claims.

Sums of money (recited in three reports made by the honorable Secretary of War to the Senate on these State war claims and printed as Senate Ex. Docs. Nos. 10, 11, and 17, Fifty-first Congress, first session) proven to the full satisfaction of the War Department to have been expended by said States to aid the United States in the suppression of the war of the rebellion were included in the general deficiency appropriation bill as it passed the Senate during the second session of the Fifty-first Congress for the purpose of indemnifying and reimbursing said States on account and in partial liquidation of said claims, but the same were omitted from said deficiency bill as it became a law. Senate bill No. 52 and House bills No. 54 and No. 42, Fifty-second Congress, first session, were in all respects identical, the last of which House bills was, on February 10, 1892, favorably reported by the House War Claims Committee in House Report No. 254, Fifty-second Congress, first session, and said Senate bill No. 52 was, on February 4, 1892, favorably reported by the Senate Committee on Military Affairs in Senate Report No. 158, as follows, to wit:

[Senate Report No. 158, Fifty-second Congress, first session.]

"The Committee on Military Affairs, to whom was referred the bill (S. 52) to reimburse the States of California, Oregon, and Nevada for moneys by them expended in the suppression of the rebellion, have examined the same and report as follows, to wit:

"This measure was considered by this committee during the first session of the Fifty-first Congress, and was reported upon favorably (Report No. 644).

"Your committee concur in the conclusions stated in that report and recommend the passage of the bill."

At a very early period of the war of the rebellion nearly all the troops of the regular Army of the United States then serving in California, Oregon, and Nevada were

withdrawn from military duty in those States and transported thence by sea to New York City, at an expense to the United States of about $390,103, or an average cost of about $284 for each commissioned officer and of about $133 for each enlisted man.

This withdrawal therefrom of said regular troops left these three Pacific coast States comparatively defenseless, and for the purpose of supplying their places, and to provide additional military forces, rendered necessary by public exigencies, calls for volunteers were made upon said States under proclamations of the President, or requisitions by the War Department, or by its highest military officers commanding the military departments on the Pacific. These calls for volunteers continued until the necessity therefor entirely ceased to exist, during which time these three Pacific coast States furnished, enlisted, equipped, paid, and mustered into the military service of the United States 18,715 volunteers, as shown in said reports so made to the Senate by the Secretary of War.

In consequence of this withdrawal in 1861 of said military forces from the Pacific coast, in order that they might perform military service in the East, and in view of the circumstances and exigencies existing in the Pacific coast States and Territories during the rebellion period, requisitions were duly made from time to time by the President of the United States and by the Secretary of War upon the proper State authorities of California, Oregon, and Nevada for volunteers to perform military service for the United States in said States and Territories, as are fully and in great detail set forth in Senate Ex. Docs. Nos. 10, 11, and 17, Fifty-first Congress, first session. In compliance with the several calls and official requisitions so made between 1861 and 1866, inclusive—

	Volunteers.
The State of California furnished	15,725
The State of Nevada furnished	1,180
The State of Oregon furnished	1,810
Making a total aggregate of	18,715

who were enlisted and were thereafter duly mustered into the military service of the United States as volunteers from said States. The same number of troops if organized in the East and transported from New York City to the Pacific coast States and Territories in the same manner as was done by the U. S. War Department from June 17, 1850, to August 3, 1861, would have cost the United States at that time the sum of about $5,483,385 for *transportation alone.*

The indemnification for the "costs, charges, and expenses" properly incurred by said States for enrolling, subsisting, clothing, supplying, arming, equipping, paying, transporting, and furnishing said 18,715 volunteer troops employed by the United States to aid them to maintain the "common defense," was guaranteed by the United States in the act of Congress approved July 27, 1861 (12 U. S. Stats., 276), an act entitled "An act to indemnify the States for expenses incurred by them in defense of the United States."

The then Secretary of War, Hon. Redfield Proctor, now U. S. Senator from Vermont (on page 28 of his report, Senate Ex. Doc. No. 11, Fifty-first Congress, first session), in reporting upon the military services performed by said volunteers during the rebellion, said:

"They took the places of the regular troops in California, all of which, except 3 batteries of artillery and 1 regiment of infantry, were withdrawn to the East at an early period after the outbreak of the war. Without them (and the Oregon and Nevada volunteers) the overland mail and emigrant routes, extending from the Missouri River via Great Salt Lake City to California and Oregon, and passing through an uninhabited and mountainous country, infested with hostile Indians and highwaymen, could not have been adequately protected; and yet it was of the first importance to have these routes kept open and safe, especially as rebel cruisers had made the sea routes both hazardous and expensive. Two expeditions composed of California volunteers, under the command of Brig. Gens. James H. Carleton and Patrick E. Connor, respectively, performed perilous and exhausting marches across a desert and over an almost impassable country and established themselves, the latter in Utah—where, besides protecting the mail routes, a watchful eye was kept on the uncertain and sometimes threatening attitude of the Mormons—and the former in Arizona and New Mexico, which Territories were thereafter effectually guarded in the interests of the United States against Indians and rebels."

The Secretary of War, with the assistance of the board of Army officers, created under the authority of the act of Congress approved August 4, 1886 (24 U. S. Stat., p. 217), and which officers were duly selected and appointed on said board by Mr. Secretary of War, Hon. W. C. Endicott, has heretofore found as facts, and has so officially reported to the Senate (as printed in Senate Ex. Docs. Nos. 10, 11, 17, Fifty-first Congress, first session), that the States of California, Oregon, and Nevada, under appropriate laws of the legislatures thereof, respectively, have actually paid in gold coin out of their State treasuries, on account of the "costs, charges, and expenses"

properly incurred by said three States for enrolling, subsisting, clothing, supplying, arming, equipping, paying, transporting, and furnishing said 18,715 volunteer troops of said three States, which were employed by the United States to aid them to maintain the "common defense" on the Pacific coast during the war of the rebellion, the exact sums of money as recited in said bill (H. R. 4959), the reimbursement of which was so guaranteed to be paid to said States as an indemnity under the aforesaid act of July 27, 1861 (12 U. S. Stat., 276), "An act to indemnify the States for expenses incurred by them in defense of the United States," and under the resolution of Congress of March 8, 1862 (12 U. S. Stat., 615), "declaratory of the intent and meaning of said act, and the resolution of March 19, 1862 (12 U. S. Stat., 616), to authorize the Secretary of War to accept moneys appropriated by any State for the payment of its volunteers, and to apply the same as directed by such State," copies of which act and resolution are as follows:

On the 27th day of July, 1861, Congress passed an act entitled "An act to indemnify the States for expenses incurred by them in defense of the United States," as follows:

"That the Secretary of the Treasury be, and is hereby, directed, out of any moneys in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, to pay to the governor of any State, or its duly authorized agents, the costs, charges, and expenses properly incurred by said State for enrolling, subsisting, clothing, supplying, arming, equipping, paying, and transporting its troops employed in aiding in suppressing the present insurrection against the United States, to be settled upon proper vouchers to be filed and passed upon by the proper accounting officers of the Treasury." (12 Stat. L., p. 276.)

A RESOLUTION declaratory of the intent and meaning of a certain act therein named.

Whereas doubts have arisen as to the true intent and meaning of act numbered eighteen, entitled "An act to indemnify the States, for expenses incurred by them in 'defense of the United States,' approved July twenty-seventh, eighteen hundred and sixty-one" (12 U. S. Stats., 276):

Be it resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the said act shall be construed to apply to expenses incurred as well after as before the date of the approval thereof.

Approved March 8, 1862 (12 U. S. Stats., 615).

A RESOLUTION to authorize the Secretary of War to accept moneys appropriated by any State for the payment of its volunteers and to apply the same as directed by such State.

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That if any State during the present rebellion shall make any appropriation to pay the volunteers of that State, the Secretary of War is hereby authorized to accept the same, and cause it to be applied by the Paymaster-General to the payments designated by the legislative act making the appropriation, in the same manner as if appropriated by act of Congress; and also to make any regulations that may be necessary for the disbursement and proper application of such funds to the specific purpose for which they may be appropriated by the several States.

Approved March 19, 1862 (12 U. S. Stats., 616).

AN ACT for the benefit of the States of Texas, Colorado, Oregon, Nebraska, California, Kansas, and Nevada, and the Territories of Washington and Idaho, and Nevada when a Territory.

* * * * * * *

SEC. 2. The Secretary of War is hereby authorized to detail three Army officers to assist him in examining and reporting upon the claims of the States and Territories named in the act of June twenty-seventh, eighteen hundred and eighty-two, chapter two hundred and forty-one of the laws of the Forty-seventh Congress, and such officers, before entering upon said duties shall take and subscribe an oath that they will carefully examine said claims, and that they will, to the best of their ability, make a just and impartial statement thereof, as required by said act.

Approved August 4, 1886. (24 U. S. Stat., 217.)

From the facts and laws hereinbefore recited, your committee concur in the conclusions reached and recommendations made in the several House and Senate reports

which heretofore accompanied similar bills, and now reaffirm the same, and report back said bill (H. R. 4959) with a recommendation that it do pass with an amendment added thereto as follows, to wit:

"That payment of said sums of money shall be made to each of said States in four equal installments, the first of which shall be paid to them respectively upon the passage of this act, the second of which shall be paid to them respectively on July 1, 1895, the third of which shall be paid to them respectively on July 1, 1896, the fourth of which shall be paid to them respectively on July 1, 1897."

EXHIBIT No. 5.

CHAPTER XXXII.—SENATE JOINT RESOLUTION No. 5, relative to indebtedness of the United States Government to the State of California (adopted March 13, 1893).

Resolved by the Senate, the Assembly concurring, That the State of California urges upon its Senators and Representatives in Congress to use their best efforts in procuring the passage of the act now pending in both houses of Congress, to reimburse California for the money raised and disbursed for arming and equipping troops brought into service by requisition of the United States during the rebellion. These claims have all been passed upon and approved by the War Department, and by the committee in each house to whom they were referred, and are on their respective calendars for passage, but may fail this Congress, as in the last, for want of earnest and active presentation. For war claims, see House Report three thousand three hundred and ninety-six, and Senate Reports one thousand two hundred and eighty-six and two thousand and fourteen, first session, Fiftieth Congress; also, House Report two thousand five hundred and fifty-three, and Senate Report six hundred and forty-four, first session Fifty-first Congress; and House Report two hundred and fifty-four, and Senate Report one hundred and fifty-eight, first session Fifty-second Congress.

Resolved, That whatever money shall be received by the State from these claims, or from the claim of the State to five per cent of the cash sales of public land sold in this State by the United States, the same shall be turned into the State treasury, and credited to the school fund.

Resolved, That his excellency the governor be requested to forward a copy of these resolutions to each of the Senators and Representatives in Congress.

EXHIBIT No. 6.

[Senate Mis. Doc. No. 51, Fifty-second Congress, second session.]

FEBRUARY 13, 1893.—Referred to the Committee on Appropriations and ordered to be printed.

Mr. DOLPH presented the following memorial of the legislature of the State of Oregon praying the payment of moneys expended in maintaining the common defense and to aid in the suppression of the rebellion:

To the Congress of the United States:

Whereas the State of Oregon has heretofore paid a large sum of money to aid the United States in maintaining the common defense in the suppression of the war of the rebellion, the amount of which has been shown by the reports of the honorable Secretary of War made to Congress; and

Whereas said debt has not yet been paid but is long since due; and

Whereas Hon. J. N. Dolph has introduced in the Senate of the United States an amendment to be proposed to the sundry civil appropriation bill, making an appropriation to pay said claim, together with similar claims of the States of California and Nevada; and

Whereas the United States has reimbursed other States of the Union for sums of money expended on account of the war of the rebellion, such payments aggregating up to March 15, 1892, the sum of $44,725,072.38, but has not paid any sum whatever on said accounts to the said States of California, Oregon, and Nevada: Therefore, be it

Resolved by the legislative assembly of the State of Oregon, That justice and equity demand that the payment of said claims should be no longer delayed by the United

States, and that an appropriation of money therefor should be made by Congress at this time; and be it further

Resolved, That this memorial be telegraphed by the secretary of state to our Senators and our Representatives in Congress, and that a written copy thereof, duly certified, shall be forwarded to the presiding officers of the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States.

Adopted by the senate February 8, 1893.

C. W. FULTON,
President of the Senate.

Concurred in by the house February 8, 1893.

W. P. KEADY,
Speaker of the House.

GEORGE W. MCBRIDE,
Secretary of State.

EXHIBIT NO. 7.

MEMORIAL TO CONGRESS.

To the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled:

Your memorialists, now the State executive officers of the State of Nevada (the legislature of Nevada not being now in session), most respectfully represent to your honorable bodies that the State of Nevada has heretofore presented a claim to the United States for expenses by her incurred and by her paid as "costs, charges, and expenses properly incurred for enrolling" her military forces during the war of the rebellion, in response to and under requisitions made by the officer commanding the Military Department of the Pacific, and which "costs, charges, and expenses" so incurred and paid by Nevada aggregate the sum of $11,840 for enrolling 1,184 men preliminary to their being mustered into the military service of the United States.

A claim for reimbursement by the United States for the aforesaid expenditure has been presented by the State of Nevada to the United States, and payment thereof has been refused, and because its examining and accounting and auditing officers seem to have regarded this expenditure simply as a bounty or gratuity paid by Nevada to the officers of her military forces who enrolled said 1,184 men.

Nevada selected as her enrolling agents those officers of her military forces who were to be the commanding officers of the men who might be thereafter enrolled; and there can not be any valid question as to the wisdom or economy of such a course as adopted and uniformly pursued by Nevada, and especially when we consider the importance of each commanding officer being perfectly familiar with the qualifications of those he was to command in the field, both as to their mental and physical fitness.

This method of enrollment as adopted by Nevada, and seeming no doubt to her, at the time, as the most ready and economical one for putting her troops in the field for the United States military service, in obedience to requisitions made upon her, was the one followed in all cases; and this claim for reimbursement by the United States for the "costs, charges, and expenses" so incurred was in lieu of all other "costs, charges, and expenses" that would have to be incurred and as incident to said enrollment—such, for instance, as rent, fuel, furniture, salaries of enrolling officers, subsistence, and all the other detailed and expensive paraphernalia which pertain to the regular military recruiting or enrolling office of a State or of the United States, and such as the United States would herself have been compelled to incur if she had invoked or exercised her own Federal military machinery for the same purpose in the State of Nevada.

No express method of enrolling having been designated to Nevada by the United States she was left to adopt that method of organizing, collecting, and enrolling her military forces to meet the requisitions so made upon her at the time, and such as appeared to her to be the wisest and the most practicable.

To provide for and to pay the "costs, charges, and expenses" so incurred and to be incurred by Nevada on account of said enrollment the legislature of Nevada passed a law on March 11, 1865, which provided substantially that each enrolling or recruiting agent of her army intended by her for the military service of the United States should be allowed for all expenses of said enrollment $10 per capita. The law is as follows, to wit:

The people of the State of Nevada, represented in senate and assembly, do enact as follows:

"SECTION 1. A sum not exceeding one hundred thousand dollars is hereby appropriated and set aside, to constitute a separate fund to be known as the "soldiers' fund," for the purpose of paying a compensation to the soldiers of the companies of Nevada volunteers already raised in the Territory and in the State of Nevada, and to be raised in this State, for the service of the United States, to aid in repelling invasion, suppressing insurrections, enforcing the laws, and protecting the public property, in addition to the pay allowed them by the United States.

"SEC. 2. There shall be paid out of the fund created and set apart by the first section of this act * * * a bounty of ten dollars, to be paid to the captain or commanding officer of any company, for every recruit by him enlisted and subquently mustered into the service of the United States: *Provided*, That the provisions of this section shall not be deemed applicable to any soldier who may be drafted, or enlisted as a substitute, or any person drafted into the Army of the United States. * * *

"SEC. 3. The captains or commanding officers of companies of Nevada volunteers raised, or to be raised, for service in the Army of the United States, shall, before such officers, as recruiting agents of the Army, can be entitled to secure the benefits of this act, file in the office of the adjutant-general their affidavit, setting forth the number and names of recruits enlisted by them, and accepted by the proper medical examiners (who shall in each case be named) and sworn into the service; and further setting forth that no affidavit of the same character, for the same enlisted men, has heretofore been made or filed. The adjutant-general of the State is hereby authorized and directed to certify to the controller of state the number of men enlisted by each captain or commanding officer of a company, whenever the affidavit herein required is filed in his office, endorsed by the provost marshal of this State, or the commanding officer of the post where the enlisted men referred to and enumerated in the affidavit may have been rendezvoused on enlistment. Upon the filing of the adjutant-general's certificate, above required, in the office of the controller of State, the controller shall make out a copy of said certificate, and forward the same to the State board of examiners, and if the State board of examiners shall endorse the certificate as "Approved," then the controller shall draw his warrant upon the fund herein constituted for the sum set forth in the certificate of the adjutant-general in favor of the officers, or their legal assignees, named in the certificate, for the sums respectively set forth to be due them.

"SEC. 6. For the purpose of carrying into effect the provisions of this act, and providing for the fund created by section one of this act, the treasurer of the State of Nevada shall cause to be prepared bonds of the State to the amount of one hundred thousand dollars, in sums of five hundred dollars each, redeemable at the office of the treasurer of the State on the first day of July, one thousand eight hundred and seventy. The said bonds shall bear interest, payable semiannually, at the rate of ten per cent per annum, from the date of their issuance, which interest shall be due and payable at the office of the treasurer of this State on the first day of January and July of each year: *Providing*, That the first payment of interest shall not be made sooner than the first day of January, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-six. These said bonds shall be signed by the governor, and countersigned by the controller, and endorsed by the treasurer of the State, and shall have the seal of the State affixed thereto. Such bonds shall be issued from time to time as they may be required for use. The expense of preparing such bonds and disposing of the same shall be audited as a claim against the soldiers' fund created by this act.

"SEC. 10. For the payment of the principal and interest of the bonds issued under this act there shall be levied and collected, annually, until the final payment and redemption of the same, and in the same manner as other State revenue is or may be directed by law to be levied and collected annually, a tax of twenty-five cents, in gold and silver coin of the United States, on each one hundred dollars of taxable property in the State, in addition to the other taxes for State purposes, and the fund derived from this tax shall be set apart and applied to the payment of interest accruing on the bonds herein provided for and the final redemption of the principal of said bonds; and the public faith of the State of Nevada is hereby pledged for the payment of the bonds issued by virtue of this act, and the interest thereon and, if necessary, to provide other and ample means for the payment thereof." (Statutes of Nevada, March 11, 1865, pp. 389–393.)

This small sum of $10 per capita when the peculiar condition of Nevada at that time is considered, in connection with her then limited and expensive means of travel which was then exclusively by wagon or horseback, and before any railroads were built in this State, will be considered to be not exorbitant, but, as your memorialists now submit, the same was and is very reasonable.

True, the act of the legislature termed this $10 per capita for enrollment a "bounty" to the captains or commanding officers who might organize a company to

be thereafter mustered into the service of the United States, yet, as a matter of fact, it was not a bounty in the sense of a gratuity, and as is frequently used by the United States as meaning money in addition to the pay and allowances as set forth in the agreement with her commanding officers and enlisted men about to enter her military service; on the contrary, it was a lump compensation paid or to be paid by the State to her recruiting or enrolling officers in lieu of all other expenses or compensation for organizing its military forces and such as have been hereinbefore recited and covered, and was intended to cover all expense of travel, subsistence, lodging, and other incidental expenses, and such as U. S. recruiting and enrolling officers might properly incur in getting together and preparing men for the military service of the State and of the United States.

Your memorialists call attention to the fact that on March 11, 1865, Nevada did not even have in her treasury the money with which to pay this disbursement, but in section 6 of said act she was compelled to issue and to sell her own State bonds with which to raise money to pay this and other expenses of a military character in order to aid in defraying the State expenses in a time of war.

Not only this, but in section 10 of said act Nevada levied a tax in gold or silver coin of the United States upon every $100 taxable property in the State of Nevada, in addition to other taxes for State purposes, to create a fund with which to pay said expenses, and which tax was to continue until all of said bonds were wholly paid and fully redeemed; and in addition thereto the public faith of Nevada was pledged to pay said bonds and interest thereon, and, if necessary, to provide other and ample means for the payment thereof.

The public faith of Nevada was therefore pledged for the benefit of the United States, and at a time when the public credit of the United States was itself put to the test and its paper largely depreciated in parts of the country outside the limits of Nevada.

Wherefore, your memorialists (the legislature not now being in session), believing that if the attention of Congress were respectfully and properly invited to this matter, it would not permit this expenditure to be repudiated by being disallowed or payment refused, now, therefore, petition your honorable bodies to reimburse Nevada in the sum of $11,840 so by her expended and paid as "costs, charges, and expenses," and by her incurred for enrolling 1,184 men for the military service of the United States, and who did perform active United States military service during the war of the rebellion wherever their military services were needed.

Respectfully,

C. C. STEVENSON,
Governor.
H. C. DAVIS,
Lieutenant-Governor and Adjutant-General.
JOHN M. DORMER,
Secretary of State.
J. F. HALLOCK,
State Controller.
GEORGE TUFLY,
State Treasurer.
JOHN F. ALEXANDER,
Attorney-General.
JOHN E. JONES,
Surveyor-General.
W. C. DOVEY,
Superintendent Public Instruction.
J. C. HARLOW,
Superintendent State Printing.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 163.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 25, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. ALLEN submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Whereas it is currently reported that unarmed, law-abiding, and peaceably disposed but unemployed citizens of the United States of America are about to "peacefully assemble" in the city of Washington, and "to petition the Government for a redress of their grievances;" and

Whereas threats of arresting such persons have been made upon their entering in the District of Columbia and the city of Washington: Therefore,

Resolved, That under the Constitution of the United States of America citizens of the United States, regardless of their rank or station in life, have an undoubted and unquestionable right to peacefully assemble and petition the Government for a redress of their grievances at any place within the United States where they do not create a breach of the peace, menace or endanger persons or property, or disturb the transaction of the public business or the free use of streets and highways by the public.

Second. That such persons have as undoubted a right to visit and assemble in the city of Washington for any and all peaceable purposes as in other portions of territory belonging to or under the jurisdiction of the United States, at all times being amenable to the law for any violation thereof.

Third. That such persons have a right to enter upon the Capitol grounds of the United States, and into the Capitol building itself, as fully and to as great an extent as other citizens or persons so long as they do not disturb or hinder the transaction of the public business, menace the public peace or rights of persons and property; and any threat of violence to such persons under such circumstances would be a clear violation of their constitutional and inalienable rights.

Fourth. That we commend the prompt enforcement of all just and constitutional laws looking to the preservation of the public peace and the prevention of crime, but under the pretense of preserving the public peace and the prevention and punishment of crime peaceable and law-abiding citizens must not be disturbed in the full and free exercise of their constitutional rights.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 164.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 26, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Commerce and ordered to be printed.

Mr. MANDERSON presented the following

MEMORIALS TO CONGRESS.

PETITION FROM CITIZENS OF IOWA RELATIVE TO IMPROVEMENT OF THE MISSOURI RIVER.

The Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America:

Your memorialists, acting for and representing the people of the State of Iowa, respectfully represent:

I.—MISSOURI RIVER.

1. The Missouri River is a rapid stream, coursing through light, alluvial soil, in a wide and deep valley level from bluff to bluff. The valley is about 5 miles in width at Omaha.

2. The rapidity of the current, due to the declivity of stream, the character of the bottom lands through which it flows, and the periodical freshets cause an unstable channel, ever varying, constantly shifting, and dangerous alike to navigation and riparian interests.

3. To maintain a navigable stream of definite character necessarily fixes the banks and secures them from erosion. This work is difficult and costly, and properly pertains to the National Government for the following reasons:

(*a*) The magnitude of the expenditure calls for national resources.

(*b*) For many hundred miles the river forms the boundary between States, and its improvement, therefore, would not be within the power of State and municipal authority.

(*c*) It is a great national highway—the only outlet by water for a vast empire of mineral and agricultural country embracing many States and Territories. The importance of its navigation is not measured by the tonnage carried or the number of craft using it to-day. So long as this navigation is unimpaired, the means of possible competition to railroad transportation exist and are a potent influence for the regulation of railroad rates and the protection of the whole region drained by the river and its tributaries from exorbitant transportation charges.

(*d*) The improvement of the river, to be successful and permanent, must be systematically carried out on broad and comprehensive plans, which will include in their scope the river as a whole and allow time for natural forces, aided by proper regulation, to work out a normal channel, thus requiring many years for the full realization of the ben-

efits to be expected. Only the General Government has jurisdiction over the whole river and the necessary time at its disposal.

(*e*) Congress has recognized the duty of the Government regarding this great waterway, and by proper enactments has undertaken its systematic improvement and for that purpose the Missouri River Commission has been created.

(This commission is solely an executive agency, except as it may be called upon for advice, while the legislative branch of the Government is charged with the determination of all questions of policy. It is proper, therefore, that the interests immediately concerned in the river present the matter directly to Congress.)

II.—POLICY OF IMPROVEMENT.

1. Disturbances on the river work downstream; therefore the work of improvement should be in the same direction. To restrain the river in a normal channel for a given reach minimizes the disturbance in the next reach below and greatly reduces the cost of its improvement.

2. There are certain reaches where the channel is normal, with regular and easy curves, and where a moderate expenditure will permanently fix the river. Such reaches should be secured as soon as possible and before capricious changes shall have time to transform the river and make correction difficult.

3. The improvement on intervening reaches can progress as favorable opportunities for economical work are presented, and thus the detached sections are ultimately joined in harmony with the general scheme of systematic correction for the whole river.

4. The alternative of this matter of correcting the river will prove so vastly expensive as to arouse antagonisms which will defeat the whole scheme of river improvement.

(*a*) To begin at the mouth of the river and work upstream will involve constant watchfulness and expense to hold the head of the work.

(*b*) To carry on the work of improvement *continuously* up or down stream will require dikes and other works or enormous cost to force the river into a channel of such curves and character that it may be permanently held.

(*c*) A long period of time is required for the new banks to form and reclaimed areas to build up, and meantime heavy cost is entailed for maintenance and contingencies.

5. The preponderance of Congressional enactments have called for the systematic improvement of the river according to the policy herein outlined. (*See* Appendix II, Review of acts of Congress relating to improvement of Missouri River.)

6. The selection of localities where the work of systematic improvement of the river shall be first undertaken should be governed by the following principles:

(*a*) The reach should be in the most favorable condition for permanent improvement, so that a maximum extent of river can be corrected and secured at a minimum cost.

(*b*) The improvement of navigation being the primary object the work should be done where this interest will be most benefited.

(*c*) When the foregoing conditions are equally met preference should be given to that locality which has other important interests to be conserved; and

(*d*) The relative importance of such interests should be given due weight. "The greatest good to the greatest number" should always govern.

III.—Cities meet Requirements.

The application of the foregoing principles will clearly point to the large cities as the only localities on the river fully meeting all the requirements.

1. The most populous centers furnish the greatest number to be benefited.

2. The elements which make up a great city and trade center concentrate within a limited area larger values and a greater number of interests dependent on a well-regulated river channel than can elsewhere be found on hundreds of miles of the stream. The interests at stake along the river bottoms in the vicinity of cities are very great and entitled to protection from forces beyond local control.

3. The improvement of the river at large cities will be most benefit to navigation. Through shifting channels and over bars and shoals craft can be guided and navigation can be carried on in the country without river improvement, but a fixed and permanent channel is absolutely necessary in front of cities.

(*a*) At the cities are the harbors and landings.

(*b*) Bridges are located at these points and the river must be kept under the proper spans for the passage of boats.

(*c*) Navigation on the river is at present largely confined to the vicinity of the cities.

4. The conditions for favorable improvement will naturally be expected in the vicinity of the cities. Before railroads penetrated the country the entire traffic was by way of the river. At convenient places landings were established and villages grew about them. If the river channel shifted the landing was abandoned and the village deserted. If the river remained stationary the village grew in size and importance; hence by a sort of natural selection the cities have been located on those reaches of the river least subject to radical changes. If any reach on the river can be most successfully improved it should be found in the vicinity of a large city.

(As will be hereinafter seen, the most favorable conditions for permanent improvement exist on the Omaha reach at the present time.)

5. There are other cogent reasons why the vicinity of large cities should be selected for the first work of systematic improvement of the Missouri River.

(*a*) The great value of real estate and immense property interests located at these populous centers will induce private expenditure to supplement that of the Government.

(*b*) Future improvement on the city reaches is liable to be enormously increased in cost by vested rights and the increasing number of points to which the river must conform, and also by undesirable changes in the channel.

(*c*) Not the best enterprise, but that which commands the confidence of the greatest number, will succeed. If the scheme for the systematic improvement of the Missouri River is a worthy one it is desirable as a matter of policy that the work be done where many thousands can examine and become convinced of its value and where by directly conserving the interests of a great number their support and hearty influence is enlisted in its favor. If these cities are neglected not only

will great bodies of citizens be indifferent to the whole policy of river improvement, but they will become directly antagonistic to the whole scheme.

IV.—Omaha and Vicinity.

1. Omaha, with Council Bluffs and other cities and towns in its immediate vicinity, constitutes the most populous and important commercial center on the Missouri River. It is the gateway of the great West. The stream of interstate and transcontinental traffic crossing the river at and near this point is greater by far than the totals carried on all the craft navigating all the rivers of the whole Mississippi Valley.

2. The principal industries, consisting of locomotive and car shops, railroad bridges, yards, and depots, silver smelting and refining works, distilleries, sawmills, lumber yards, electric-light plants, waterworks, breweries, warehouses, and the many enterprises which make possible a great city, embracing practically all the industries of Omaha and Council Bluffs which depend on transportation facilities, are located upon the bottoms underlying the bluffs and must of necessity remain on these low, level lands in the river valley.

In this valley adjacent to the river has been developed at an expense of several million dollars the important manufacturing district of East Omaha.

The river here is spanned by three splendid bridges, one of which, viz, that built by the Omaha Bridge and Terminal Railway Company and located under the direction of the Secretary of War, is a low bridge, with the longest and largest draw in the world, and stands in the river valley about equidistant from the lines of bordering bluffs.

3. Since the organization of the Missouri River Commission only a small proportion of the money appropriated for the improvement of the river has been expended at Omaha. Other cities no more important and no more needs or deserving, but more clamorous, perhaps, have received the greater attention. The amounts expended at various places by the commission, as shown from its report for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1893, is as follows:

Kansas City, Mo	$658,021.76
Jefferson City, Mo. (first reach)	459,175.77
St. Joseph, Mo	287,283.10
Omaha, Nebr	120,736.64
Council Bluffs, Iowa	111,098.25

An immense sum has been expended by corporations and individuals at Omaha to protect their property from destruction by the river, as follows:

Omaha and Grant Smelting Co	$730,000.00
The American Water Works Co	437,000.00
Union Pacific Railway Co	300,000.00
Chicago and Northwestern Railroad Co	75,000.00
Burlington and Missouri Railroad Co	100,000.00
Omaha Bridge and Terminal Railroad Co	75,000.00
Other parties	100,000.00
	1,767,000.00

This expenditure by private parties has been to protect their private property, not to improve the navigation of the river. It may be made a valuable contribution to that end by the active cooperation of the General Government.

5. The navigation in the vicinity of Omaha has become more dangerous owing, to radical changes in the river channel and which can not go on indefinitely without serious injury to navigation.

(*a*) Previous to the year 1877 navigation of the Missouri River at Omaha formed a large and important interest. In that year 47 steamboats of an aggregate tonnage of about 12,000 tons passed the port of Omaha.

(*b*) At this time also the disturbance in the river channel, which had been going on for several years, culminated in a disastrous cut-off directly in front of the city, and navigation became more and more dangerous as years went by with the result that traffic has been practically driven from this part of the Missouri River. That it remains on other portions of the river where the Government has been more liberal in expenditures is proof of the occasion of its leaving Omaha and emphasizes the neglect of that place.

(*c*) Within the last few years an effort has been made to organize a line of packets and barges for the transportation of grain and other agricultural products in bulk to St. Louis and ports down the river, but owing to the extreme hazard of navigation in this neglected portion of the Missouri River the promoters of the enterprise were compelled to abandon it.

6. The Government improvement at Omaha has not been properly effective, owing to lack of systematic and continuous work. In 1878 Congress, at the urgent solicitation of the people of the State of Nebraska, made an appropriation for the improvement of the river. Since that date there has been for the same purpose other appropriations made at irregular intervals, amounting in all to two or three hundred thousand dollars.

The work of the Government now remaining is about 5 miles of revetment on the Iowa bank, northwest of the city of Council Bluffs, but no adequate work has been undertaken in the bend above, and for several years the river has been rapidly cutting into the Nebraska shore, near Florence Lake, threatening extensive changes throughout the Omaha reach.

7. The damages already suffered are very extended, and among these may be mentioned—

(*a*) Many hundred acres of valuable land have been washed away, the material of which has been deposited in the river, forming shoals and bars dangerous to navigation.

(*b*) A part of the Government revetment referred to has been destroyed and a dangerous pocket formed in the Iowa shore, just above the East Omaha bridge, which endangers all the protection work below it.

(*c*) The current has been deflected from the pocket with sufficient force to shift the main channel from under the draw of the Terminal Company's bridge, making the passage of boats through the draw very hazardous.

8. The damages threatened are also extensive and may be set forth as follows:

(*a*) As cutting progresses on the Nebraska shore, north of Florence Lake, and the bend becomes deeper, the current of the river will be deflected further north on the Iowa shore, until it impinges upon and destroys the dikes at the head of the Government revetment.

(*b*) When the dykes are gone the 5 miles of revetment below them will be utterly destroyed or rendered useless.

(*c*) Unless the pocket mentioned above be properly masked, the main channel of the river will be thrown to the west side, at the site of the bridge of the Omaha Bridge and Terminal Railway Company and the draw filled with a sand bar, totally obstructing navigation.

(*d*) Unless the cutting, near Florence Lake, is checked, radical changes of the river will occur for several miles below and necessitate works of a very extensive and costly character to preserve the course of the stream under the three bridges.

9. The changes due to the cut-off of 1877, just above the smelting works, and other disturbances have worked themselves out; and generally the course of the river and its stability have steadily improved up to the present time. It is now in as good condition for permanent improvement as can be expected. Material changes from natural causes in the future are likely to be disadvantageous and highly detrimental to very important interests that have adjusted themselves to the course the river is now shaping, and will greatly increase the cost of the future improvement of the river at this point.

10. The damages already suffered can be repaired and those threatened can be prevented by a reasonable expenditure, if it is made at once.

11. The improvements which are obviously necessary at Omaha at the present time may be stated as follows:

(*a*) The pocket will require a substantial system of dikes and cross-dikes, by which the pocket is to be recovered and a new shore line established so that the channel will follow the Iowa shore to the vicinity of the new bridge, about three-fourths of a mile below the pocket.

(*b*) Florence Bend should have a revetment from Florence down for about 3 miles.

(*c*) The river at the northwestern dikes should be trained and secured in a definite course so as to give an easy run into the bend below without direct assault on the bank. The proper and easy control below demands a fixed course in this locality.

(*d*) On the Iowa shore, above Florence, some work is needed to give positive direction to the stream in Florence bend and keep the channel against the water works revetment at Florence.

12. These works cover what is required to put the reach under control and thus permanently improve 10 to 12 miles of the most important part of the Missouri River. The aggregate cost is estimated at about $550,000.

At no other locality will the expenditure of such a sum restore to navigation so valuable a stretch of river and conserve interests of such magnitude. For 10 miles below Omaha the river is in a course so favorable that its correction can follow the systematic treatment of the Omaha reach with every assurance of success, and thus may be worked out a systematic improvement in harmony with sound principles. (*See* Appendix I, Report of L. E. Cooley, consulting engineer.)

V.—PRAYER.

We, therefore, earnestly and most respectfully pray that such a policy of the systematic improvement of the Missouri River may be adopted as will include the Omaha reach within its scope, and that such modification of the present laws, if any are necessary, may be made as will permit the Missouri River Commission to speedily enter upon the work of securing the river in the vicinity of that city in a fixed and permanent channel.

And your memorialists will ever pray.

Frank D. Jackson, governor of the State of Iowa.

Warren S. Dungan, lieutenant-governor.

M. W. McFarland, secretary of state.

C. G. McCarthy, auditor of state.
Ole O. Roe, deputy auditor of state.
Byron A. Beeson, treasurer of state.
D. B. Davidson, deputy treasurer of state.
John Y. Stone, attorney-general.
Henry Sabin, superintendent public instruction.
A. C. Tupper, Iowa State dairy commission.
John R. Shaffer, secretary of State Agricultural Society.
George W. Perkins, railroad commissioner.
C. T. Jones, deputy clerk supreme court.
D. A. Hites, clerk land department, Iowa.
Wm. Groneweg, senator Nineteenth district, Iowa.
D. J. Palmer, senator Tenth district, Iowa.
Wm. B. Perrin, senator Forty-fourth district, Iowa.
J. B. Harsh, senator Fifth district, Iowa.
N. V. Brower, senator Forty-third district, Iowa.
L. A. Ellis, senator Twenty-second district, Iowa.
J. M. Rhea, senator Thirty-eighth district, Iowa.
J. R. Gorrell, senator Twenty-ninth district, Iowa.
E. M. Reynolds, senator Third district, Iowa.
A. B. Conaway, senator Fourteenth district, Iowa.
M. W. Harmon, senator Thirty-third district, Iowa.
I. W. Baldwin, senator Thirty-fifth district, Iowa.
L. M. Kilburn, senator Sixteenth district, Iowa.
B. R. Vale, senator Second district, Iowa.
C. A. Carpenter, senator Twentieth district, Iowa.
T. A. Cheshire, senator Thirtieth district, Iowa.
Wm. Hamilton Dent, senator Forty sixth district, Iowa.
John Downey, senator First district, Iowa.
L. H. Bishop, senator Forty-ninth district, Iowa.
H. C. Boardman, senator Thirty-first district, Iowa.
M. J. Kelly, senator Twenty-fifth district, Iowa.
T. B. Perry, senator Fifteenth district, Iowa.
O. M. Oleson, senator Twenty-seventh district, Iowa.
William Eaton, senator Seventh district, Iowa.
John Everall, senator Thirty-sixth district, Iowa.
L. W. Lewis, senator Fourth district, Iowa.
Warren Garst, senator Forty-eighth district, Iowa.
G. E. Henderson, senator Fiftieth district, Iowa.
E. G. Penrose, senator Forty-fifth district, Iowa.
H. F. Andrews, senator Seventeenth district, Iowa.
A. J. Chantry, senator Eighth district, Iowa.
J. H. Jamison, senator Eleventh district, Iowa.
Alfred Hurst, senator Twenty-third district, Iowa.
J. A. Green, senator Twenty-fourth district, Iowa.
J. M. Terry, senator Twenty-sixth district, Iowa.
J. A. Riggen, senator Twelfth district, Iowa.
H. L. Waterman, senator Thirteenth district, Iowa.
John K. Cooper, representative Thirty-first district, Iowa.
G. Diederich, representative Thirty-first district, Iowa.
John Frazee, representative Eighty-sixth district, Iowa.
C. S. Ranck, representative Forty-first district, Iowa.
James Patterson, representative Fortieth district, Iowa.
Parley Finch, representative Seventy-sixth district, Iowa.
C. L. McGonigle, representative Seventieth district, Iowa.
Lorenz Rogge, representative Forty-third district, Iowa.

H. B. Watters, representative Forty-second district, Iowa.
J. C. Milliman, representative Thirty-second district, Iowa.
C. L. Root, representative Forty-fifth district, Iowa.
R. T. St. John, representative Ninetieth district, Iowa.
George McNeeley, representative Sixteenth district, Iowa.
S. Williams, representative Tenth district, Iowa.
Z. H. Gurley, representative Sixth district, Iowa.
D. Nicoll, representative Fifty-seventh district, Iowa.
H. T. Saberson, representative Seventy-seventh district, Iowa.
J. H. Funk, representative Sixty-fourth district, Iowa.
S. S. Sessions, representative Eighty-third district, Iowa.
W. B. Martin, representative Twenty-ninth district, Iowa.
John Morris, representative Seventy-ninth district, Iowa.
Wireman Miller, representative Fifty-ninth district, Iowa.
J. S. Morris, representative Fifteenth district, Iowa.
W. O. Mitchell, representative Thirteenth district, Iowa.
W. H. Taylor, representative Third district, Iowa.
James McCann, representative Sixty-ninth district, Iowa.
Aug. Schultz, representative Fifty-sixth district, Iowa.
W. B. Murray, representative Forty-third district, Iowa.
P. Stillmunkes, representative Sixty-ninth district, Iowa.
H. B. Haselton, representative Fifty-fifth district, Iowa.
S. J. Van Gilder, representative Twenty-seventh district, Iowa.
C. H. Robinson, representative Twenty-sixth district, Iowa.
Chas. I. Barker, representatives Twenty-first district, Iowa.
A. H. Davison, representative Eightieth district, Iowa.
Oliver E. Doubleday, representative Thirty-seventh district, Iowa
F. Cooper, representative Twelfth district, Iowa.
S. M. Endicott, representative Fiftieth district, Iowa.
Henry Young, representative Sixty-first district, Iowa.
John Homrighaus, representative Seventy-second district, Iowa.
B. M. McQuinn, representative Forty-ninth district, Iowa.
W. W. Williams, representative Eighty-ninth district, Iowa.
C. F. Spearman, representative Twentieth district, Iowa.
T. Horton, representative Twenty-fourth district, Iowa.
W. B. Chapman, representative Fifty-eighth district, Iowa.
P. A. Sawyer, representative Fifty-eighth district, Iowa.
S. Burnquist, representative Sixty-second district, Iowa.
W. H. Klemme, representative Eighty-eighth district, Iowa.
E. O. Spaulding, representative Eighty-fifth district, Iowa.
H. W. Byers, representative Thirty-third district, Iowa.
A. St. Clair Smith, representative Forty-eighth district, Iowa.
W. W. Cornwall, representative Eighty-second district, Iowa.
A. L. Wood, representative Twenty-eighth district, Iowa.
H. O. Weaver, representative Twenty-second district, Iowa.
J. D. Morrison, representative Sixty-fifth district, Iowa.
I. Pattison, representative Seventy-first district, Iowa.
W. G. Crow, representative Eighteenth district, Iowa.
C. T. Coonley, representative Seventy-third district, Iowa.
M. E. Bitterman, representative Eighty-fourth district, Iowa.
A. L. Stuntz, representative Fifty-second district, Iowa.
C. C. Dowell, representative Thirty-first district, Iowa.
Joshua Jestor, representative Fifty-fourth district, Iowa.
H. J. Criswold, representative Sixty-seventh district, Iowa.
M. H. Brinton, representative Sixty-third district, Iowa.
T. M. Britt, representative Eleventh district, Iowa.

M. D. Reed, representative Thirty-fourth district, Iowa.
J. H. Carter, representative Thirty-sixth district, Iowa.
W. S. Allen, representative Second district, Iowa.
M. Brooks, representative Fifty-third district, Iowa.
H. E. Deemer, judge district court.
S. Campbell, clerk district court.
W. B. Reed, treasurer Pottawattamie County.
Jno. P. Organ, attorney Pottawattamie County.
J. M. Matthews, auditor Pottawattamie County.
R. V. Innes, deputy auditor Pottawattamie County.
W. M. Shepard, recorder Pottawattamie County.
J. H. Cleaver, mayor Council Bluffs.
J. A. Gorham, city treasurer.
F. T. True, assistant city treasurer.
L. Zurmuehlen, jr., city clerk.
G. M. Gould, city auditor.
Geo. P. Sanford, president First National Bank, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
Jno. Bennett, cashier State Savings Bank, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
Chas. R. Hammer, cashier Citizens State Bank, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
W. H. M. Pusey, Officer & Pusey, bankers, Council Bluffs, Iowa.
J. M. Oursler, agent U. P. Ry.
Wm. L. Bedison, auditor O. & St. L. R. R.
W. J. Davenport, A. D. F. A. C. B. & Q. R. R.
S. C. Empkie, manager Empkie-Shugart Company.
F. R. Davis, secretary and treasurer Pioneer Implement Company.
E. H. Merriam, secretary David Bradley & Co.
W. S. Cass, manager Marseilles Manufacturing Company.
Lucius Welles, secretary and manager Deere, Wells & Co.
Jno. Schoentgen, wholesale grocer.
J. W. Palmer, manager Geo. A. Hoagland Lumber Company.
Jno. W. Smith, manager Standard Oil Company.
Finley Burke, attorney at law.
Thos. E. Casady, attorney at law.
Jno. Beresheim.
H. E. Grimm, local manager World-Herald.
J. R. Deitrich, superintendent Council Bluffs Globe.
Jno. Liner.
C. C. Bracket, merchant.

APPENDIX I.

Report of Consulting Engineer L. E. Cooley, C. E., of Chicago, on the present condition and character of the "Omaha Reach" of the Missouri River and improvement necessary for the fixation of the channel and estimates of the cost thereof.

IMPROVEMENT OF THE MISSOURI RIVER.

[Omaha reach—Florence to Union Pacific Railway bridge.]

The characteristics of the Omaha reach are known from surveys for the United States which have been made with more or less regularity since 1877. These surveys show very fully the succession of changes in shore lines and river bed, and the general surveys carried over the river in 1879 and 1890 develop the character of the river above and below. The last survey, made for the purpose of this report in October of this year, shows the location of the river bed and of the main shore lines as they now exist.

The object sought is the fixation of the river in a proper course on account of the very large and growing property interests in the twin cities of Omaha and Council

Bluffs that would be menaced by any material change. The interests of commerce are also concerned in a permanent location at the bridge crossings. Such works as are required for these objects promote in the highest degree the navigability of this reach as a part of the general improvement of the Missouri River.

The Omaha reach extends from Florence to the Union Pacific Railway bridge, a distance of 10 miles. The general or average width between the shore lines at ordinary high water is 2,200 feet, or about 800 feet in excess of the average width across low water and low bars. This general width, however, does not represent the proper width of the river, or that really necessary for the flow of the stream, but rather the space over which the stream has wandered in recent years, or during the time required for bars to build up, become covered with vegetation, or a growth of willows and cottonwood, and be regarded as fast land. On the whole the changes due to the cut-off of 1877, just above the smelting works, have worked themselves out, and generally the course of the river and its stability have steadily improved up to the time of the October survey. Material changes from natural causes in the future are likely on the whole to be disadvantageous to improvement and highly detrimental to very important interests that are adjusting themselves to the course the river is now shaping.

The same favorable conditions do not obtain above or below. Above Florence the rapid cutting of the point of the bend on the east shore throws the stream lower down against the bluffs, and this action can not continue indefinitely without producing radical changes in the bend below Florence and altering the conditions at the northwestern dikes so as to greatly disturb the course below, the ultimate effect of all of which can not be foretold. This danger is by no means remote and the adoption of remedial measures should not be delayed. Below Omaha bridge such changes are occurring as indicate an uneasy disposition of the river, and between that point and Plattsmouth radical changes have occurred in recent years and are now occurring which, in the readjustment that must follow, are a serious menace to the Omaha reach.

In 1879, prior to the St. Mary's cut-off above the mouth of the Platte, the distance by the course of the river from the Omaha bridge to Plattsmouth bridge was 33¼ miles. In 1890 this distance had shortened to 24½ miles, a decrease in length of about 27 per cent. During the same time no material change in length occurred in the river above from Omaha to Blair. The general experience with the river is that, notwithstanding cut-offs and wanderings, the length between fixed points, say 100 miles apart, will not in time show material alteration; in other words, that any shortening or other abrupt development is local and temporary. The river may wander and change its course, but the substantial length and average characteristics prevail. It is also believed that radical changes for the most part find their normal readjustment upstream.

These lessons of experience are in harmony with sound theory. It is obvious that the energy of the stream or the work which it can do is measured by the fall in a given distance. The fall per mile between Omaha and Plattsmouth has been increased by over one-third, and this surplus of energy will occasion wandering and spreading until sooner or later it works itself out in recovered length.

If the conditions favored the recovery of this length below Omaha, then the menace might not be serious to the Omaha reach. They do not appear favorable, and no judgment can be formed as to whether the river will or will not, in the early future and in a brief season, take on comparative stability in the region of present instability with a transfer of slope and unstable conditions upstream. Should this occur, it is a question as to whether the Omaha reach could stand the strain of this surplus of energy until it had worked through to the river, above which is in much more susceptible condition. If the Omaha reach was well secured throughout in a fair course of moderate width, unquestionably the transfer of any undesirable conditions would be effected without material local damage.

The Omaha reach has not undergone recently other than the ordinary changes normal to the Missouri River as a result of flood seasons and the enormous amount of material shifted in its bed. At the present time the course as a whole is very favorable to further improvement. The bend below Florence is in proper shape for bank revetement, and certain dike work should be done on the left bank opposite and below Florence with a view to better controlling the direction of the stream into the bend and building up the low and broad bar which extends well down toward the northwestern dikes. The course at and above the northwestern dikes is favorable and should be made permanent in the present position. From this point down to the point of bend opposite Omaha the Council Bluffs or left bank has been revetted for a distance of 5 miles. This bend has a pocket which should be masked by a dike in order to insure stability of course below in the 2¼ miles approaching Omaha.

Aside from the holding of the concave banks in their present position, the situation reduces to a control of the run into the bend at and below Florence, fixation of

the river at the northwestern dikes, and a masking of the pocket above the new railway bridge. It would be well also if in training the river the bend above the smelting works and in the approach to the highway bridge could be corrected by a course farther out and with less curvature. Property interests would be materially served thereby and no doubt of themselves will in time bring about an easier course.

The question of allowable width is of importance, as a greater width than the proper requirements of the stream encourages wandering or change of channel and affords better opportunity for unstable conditions to be effective. From a pretty full consideration of the matter for the entire river and extending through several years 817 feet was fixed between Sioux City and Plattsmouth, and this may be safely adopted for any local requirement and no doubt fixed banks that distance apart would be sufficient for the needs of the stream. This will seem to some who have not given due consideration to the matter of cross section and scour as affected by variations in stage of water, as very narrow, and the more conservative width of 1,000 feet at ruling points will be entirely safe and probably more expedient.

If the width is controlled and fixed at ruling points, it will usually take care of itself in the bends lying between or require slight aid in building up the bars and reducing the section to the normal width, and thus broad areas will be recovered from the wandering river course to become in time fast land.

On the other hand, should nothing farther be done to the Omaha reach, we may expect the following results:

(1) Changing conditions at Florence which will give rise to a shifting river in the bend below, with heavy bank erosion and frequent bar changes.

(2) A dropping down of the river's course below the northwestern dikes and such a direct assault on the revetment as would probably destroy the same and confuse the course of the river below.

(3) Shifting into and out of the pocket above the new bridge with a corresponding variation of the river in its approach to Omaha and difficult control of the channel at the bridge site.

All these conditions are favorable as furnishing points of attack in case of complications arising by which the unstable conditions below Omaha should be transferred into the Omaha reach.

It may be confidently stated that the Omaha reach is in better shape at this time than for many years past, and that future conditions and changes will be detrimental and possibly result in instability of a radical character. For these reasons it should at once be fully secured in a proper course by works of a substantial character.

The map of the October survey shows clearly the place of the stream, the height of bars, and the course of the main banks. It bears out fully the conclusion that the ruling points are at Florence, the northwestern dikes, and at the pocket, 2½ miles above Omaha; the variations at these points being most largely responsible for the wandering channel and the varicose conditions below.

The matter of improvement will only be referred to in its general features, as the cost in advance of a knowledge of what the specific conditions will be when funds are actually available and the specific plan that should be applied at each locality can not be stated except in its limits.

The several works will be referred to in what seems their natural order of development as affecting the several interests to be guarded.

1. The pocket.—This will require a substantial system of dikes and cross dikes, by which the pocket is to be recovered and a new shore line established which will continue the bend above on a fair curve so that the river will follow the Iowa shore to the vicinity of the new bridge, about three-fourths of a mile below the pocket. The longitudinal dike for the new shore line will have a length of 4,000 to 5,000 feet and about an equal length of cross dike will be required, all estimated to cost $75,000.

2. Florence bend.—This should have a substantial revetment from Florence down for about 3 miles, and the present bank line seems to be very favorable. How far the situation may be changed by another high water can not be told. This work should all be carried out in one season and will cost about $120,000.

3. Northwestern dikes.—The river should be here trained and secured in a definite course so as to give any easy run into the bend below without direct assault on the banks. How permanent the revetment below the dikes may be, I can not say, but it would require to be of the most unusual character to withstand direct and changing assaults. The proper and easy control below demands a fixed course in this locality. Probably a mile will require training and securing at an estimated cost of $60,000, although this estimate is subject to many contingencies.

4. Florence dikes.—On the Iowa shore, opposite and below Florence, a mile of work may be judicious with a view to giving positive direction to the stream in Florence bend. The character and amount of work at this point is necessarily ten-

tative in view of development above, but an estimate of $60,000 should be sufficient for the probable requirements.

The foregoing aggregates $300,000. There may be incidental work which it would be judicious to undertake. These works, however, cover what is required to put the reach under control, though it might be well to increase the estimate to $350,000 to cover unforeseen contingencies.

Other works may properly follow, but as they will be more local and of a character to fix the banks in more detail and build up bars, and must be projected in view of results that may follow the works outlined, no estimate is submitted. They will all be beneficial in more definitely fixing and securing the river and in determining its width, and will be aided largely by the bank interests.

The question of what should be done in the short bend above the smelting works has been alluded to, but no project is submitted, as this locality does not appear to be specially menaced. No doubt a material change could be made which would be beneficial to the river and of advantage to property interest, and the depth of the underlying rock would seem to favor a correction. It is a matter requiring more and special study in view of the proximity to the two bridges.

Very respectfully submitted.

L. E. COOLEY,
Consulting Engineer.

Mr. A. S. POTTER,
Omaha, Nebr.
CHICAGO, *November 19, 1892.*

APPENDIX II.

A review of the acts of Congress relating to the systematic improvement of the Missouri River since the creation of the Missouri River Commission in 1884.

The act of 1884, creating the Missouri River Commission, says:

"Improving Missouri River from its mouth to Sioux City, Iowa, including such harbors on said river as in the judgment of the Board of Engineers herein created will benefit commerce and navigation, $500,000."

* * * * * * *

"That it shall be the duty of said commission to superintend and direct such improvement of said river and to carry into execution such plans for the improvement of the navigation of said river from its mouth to its headwaters *as may now be devised and in progress*, and to continue and complete such surveys as may now be in progress, and to make such additional surveys, examinations, and investigations, topographical, hydrographical, and hydrometrical, and to consider, devise, and mature such additional plan or plans, and all such estimates as may be deemed necessary and best to obtain and maintain a channel and depth of water in said river sufficient for the purposes of commerce and navigation."

* * * * * * *

"That the said commission shall, under the direction and with the approval of the Secretary of War, superintend, control, and expend for the purposes of this act all appropriations or unexpended balances heretofore made for the improvement of said river, and which may hereafter be made for said river, or so much thereof as may be necessary, and shall prepare and submit, through the Chief of the Engineer Corps, to the Secretary of War, to be by him transmitted to Congress at the beginning of the regular session in December of each year, a full and detailed report of all their proceedings and actions, and of all such plans and systems of work as may now be devised and in progress and carried out by them and of all such additional plans and systems of works as may be devised and matured by them, with full and detailed estimates of the cost thereof, and statements of all expenditures made by them; and the Secretary of War may detail from the Corps of Engineers or other Corps of the Army an officer to act as secretary of the commission to aid them in their work; and all money hereby or hereafter appropriated for the improvement of said Missouri River shall be expended, under the direction of the Secretary of War, in accordance with the plans, specifications, and recommendations of said commission *when such plans, specifications, and recommendations shall have been approved by Congress.*" (23 U. S. Stat. L., p. 145.)

Two things are clear from the reading of this act.

(1) The commission is directed to carry into execution the plans for improvement and complete the various pieces of work in progress at the date of the act.

(2) The commission were authorized to devise new plans or plans for other and new work, but could not carry them into execution until they had been approved by Congress.

In 1884, work was in progress at many places on the river, including Omaha, and as we have seen the reading of the act makes it the duty of the commission not to abandon all the various pieces of work then in progress, and concentrate everything at one place, but to carry to completion and make a fixed and permanent channel at all points where the Government was then engaged in improvement. This is emphatically confirmed by the act of 1886, which reads:

"Improving Missouri River from its mouth to Sioux City, continuing improvement, including necessary work at Omaha, Atchison, Saint Joseph, Fort Leavenworth Reservation, Arrow Rock, Kansas City, Plattsmouth, Brownsville, and Nebraska City, three hundred and seventy-five thousand dollars; to be expended under the direction of the Secretary of War in accordance with plans and estimates to be furnished by the Missouri River Commission." (24 U. S. Stat. L., p. 327.)

Here the commission is not only directed in general terms to carry on the work "in progress," as in the act of 1884, but the particular places where the work is located are specified.

The act of 1888 is even more specific:

"Improving Missouri River from mouth to Fort Benton: Continuing improvement one million dollars, including removal of obstructions, surveys, and examinations, to be expended under the direction of the Secretary of War in accordance with the plans, specifications, and recommendations of the Missouri River Commission, except as herein modified." Then follows specific directions to the commission to expend certain sums at certain particular places on the river where the work had been previously in progress. (25 U. S. Stat. L., p. 422.)

The commission are not only commanded to continue the work in progress and the places named, but amounts to be expended at each place are specified.

The act of 1890 says:

"Improving Missouri River from its mouth to Sioux City, Iowa, inclusive, embracing office, clerical, traveling, and other expenses of the Missouri River Commission, surveys, permanent bench marks and gauges, eight hundred thousand dollars, to be expended by the Secretary of War in the systematic improvement of the river from its mouth up, according to the plans and specifications of the Missouri River Commission, to be approved by him *in reaches to be designated by them: Provided,* That in the discretion of the commission such portion of said sum and of all unexpended balances from former appropriations during the last four years for the improvement of the Missouri River below Sioux City, or any part thereof, not exceeding two hundred and three thousand dollars, as they may deem proper, shall be expended in the protection of harbors and localities on any part of the river within said limits." (26 U. S. Stat. L., p. 451.)

This act gives large discretion to the Missouri River Commission. The money appropriated is to be expended at such places and according to such plans as the commission may deem proper.

The words "*in the systematic improvement of the river from its mouth up,*" etc., convey the impression that Congress intends that the work should begin at the mouth of the river and proceed thence continuously up the stream; but this impression is removed by the subsequent provision requiring the expenditure to be made "*in reaches to be designated by them*" (the Missouri River Commission).

ACT OF 1892.

"Improving Missouri River from its mouth to Sioux City, Iowa, including salaries, clerical, office, traveling, and miscellaneous expenses of the Missouri River Commission, surveys, permanent bench marks and gauges: Continuing improvement, six hundred thousand dollars, to be expended under the direction of the Secretary of War in the systematic improvement of the river according to the plans and specifications of the Missouri River Commission, as approved by the Chief of Engineers: *Provided,* That in the discretion of said commission a portion of such sum may be expended in the protection of harbors and localities on the river within said limits: *And provided also,* That on and after the passage of this act additional contracts may be entered into by the Secretary of War for such materials and work as may be necessary to carry on continuously the plans of the Missouri River Commission for the improvement of said river, or said materials may be purchased and work may be done otherwise than by contract, to be paid for as appropriations may from time to time be made by law, not exceeding in the aggregate seven hundred and fifty thousand dollars per annum for three years, commencing July first, eighteen hundred and ninety-three." (27 U. S. Stat. L., p. 108.)

Before the passage of this act the commission, in making plans for work on the river, were confined and limited by the amount of the appropriation available at

the time of making plans; they could not anticipate future appropriations and lay out work to be carried on from year to year. If the money appropriated was not sufficient to do the work as in their judgment it should be done, their plans must be altered to meet the funds available, whether the best interests were conserved or not.

The result of this condition of affairs was that much of the work done was inadequate and the money expended on it was wasted.

It was evidently the intention of Congress to remove this serious obstacle to successful work on the river and to follow up the enlarged discretion granted the commission in 1890 by granting authority to make such plans for the systematic improvement of the river as the best engineering ability should designate, and to enable the work to be carried on systematically from year to year, until the plans made could be carried into execution.

Congress does not outline any policy of river improvement; does not designate where or how the money shall be expended. All this is left to the discretion of the commission.

ACT OF 1893.

"Under Missouri River Commission: For improving Missouri River from its mouth to Sioux City, including salaries, clerical, office, traveling, and miscellaneous expenses of the Missouri River Commission, surveys, permanent bench marks and gauges, seven hundred and fifty thousand dollars, fifty thousand dollars of which may be used for removal of snags and other like obstructions in the Missouri River above Sioux City, Iowa; to be expended under the direction of the Secretary of War." (27 U. S. Stat. L., p. 603.)

It is submitted (1) That nothing in the foregoing acts indicate an intention on the part of Congress that the systematic improvement of the Missouri River shall begin at the mouth and thence proceed continuously upstream. That the expression "*from its mouth to Sioux City*" is used to express the limits within which the work of improvement may be done, and not to indicate where the work shall begin or the direction of its progress. The same expression is used in the following:

The act of 1884, in which the commission is required to continue the work then in progress; in

The act of 1886, in which many places are named at which work shall be done; and in

The act of 1888, in which the amounts to be expended at various places are specified.

The use of the same expression in subsequent acts must have been with the same meaning and intent, viz, to appropriate a certain amount to be expended wherever deemed necessary anywhere on the river between Sioux City and the mouth just as other appropriations are made for that part of the river above Sioux City.

In the act of 1890 the words "*in the systematic improvement of the river from its mouth up*" are qualified by a subsequent clause "in reaches to be designated by them" (commission).

The Missouri River Commission have not interpreted the law to require them to begin the work at the mouth of the river. The principal work now in progress, and known as the *first reach*, is near Jefferson City, Mo., about 150 miles from the mouth of the river. (See report of the Missouri River Commission for year ending June 30, 1893, p. 6, Vol. II; Report of Secretary of War to second session Fifty-third Congress, p. 3922.)

Second. That in no act has the appropriation been restricted to one locality or to continuous work from one point.

Third. That, in every instance where words have been used specifying where the expenditures shall be made, it has been not that the work shall be continuous from one place, but that the appropriation shall be divided up and expended in many places.

Fourth. That, in every act, words have been used which either permit expenditure at various localities up and down the river, or in express terms or by implication require the appropriation to be expended in this manner.

Fifth. That wherever work was in progress in 1884 it should be continued at such points until the object for which the work was begun had been accomplished, and the river at those localities fixed in a permanent and navigable channel.

Sixth. That abundant justification has been shown for the belief hereinbefore expressed, to wit: That Congress has not, either directly or indirectly, formulated a policy of the systematic improvement of the Missouri River which contemplates that the work shall begin at the mouth of the river and thence proceed continuously upstream, or that the work in various localities on the river shall be abandoned and all the appropriations be expended in one place.

PETITION FROM CITIZENS OF NEBRASKA RELATIVE TO IMPROVEMENT OF THE MISSOURI RIVER.

The Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America:

Your memorialists, acting for and representing the people of the State of Nebraska, respectfully represent:

I.—Missouri River.

1. The Missouri River is a rapid stream, coursing through light alluvial soil in a wide and deep valley level from bluff to bluff. The valley is about 5 miles in width at Omaha.

2. The rapidity of the current, due to the declivity of the stream, the character of the bottom lands through which it flows and the periodical freshets, cause an unstable channel, ever varying, constantly shifting and dangerous alike to navigation and riparian interests.

3. To maintain a navigable stream of definite character necessarily fixes the banks and secures them from erosion. This work is difficult and costly, and properly pertains to the National Government for the following reasons:

(*a*) The magnitude of the expenditure calls for national resources.

(*b*) For many hundred miles the river forms the boundary between States, and its improvement therefore would not be within the power of State and municipal authority.

(*c*) It is a great national highway—the only outlet by water for a vast empire of mineral and agricultural country embracing many States and Territories. The importance of its navigation is not measured by the tonnage carried or the number of craft using it to-day. So long as this navigation is unimpaired the means of possible competition to railroad transportation exists and is a potent influence for the regulation of railroad rates and the protection of the whole region drained by the river and its tributaries from exorbitant transportation charges.

(*d*) The improvement of the river, to be successful and permanent, must be systematically carried out on broad and comprehensive plans, which will include in their scope the river as a whole and allow time for natural forces, aided by proper regulation, to work out a normal channel, thus requiring many years for the full realization of the benefits to be expected. Only the General Government has jurisdiction over the whole river and the necessary time at its disposal.

(*e*) Congress has recognized the duty of the Government regarding this great waterway, and by proper enactments has undertaken its systematic improvement, and for that purpose the Missouri River Commission has been created.

(This commission is solely an executive agency, except as it may be called upon for advice, while the legislative branch of the Government is charged with the determination of all questions of policy. It is proper, therefore, that the interests immediately concerned in the river present the matter directly to Congress.)

II.—Policy of Improvement.

1. Disturbances on the river work downstream; therefore, the work of improvement should be in the same direction. To restrain the river in a normal channel for a given reach minimizes the disturbance in the next reach below and greatly reduces the cost of its improvement.

2. There are certain reaches where the channel is normal with regular and easy curves, and where a moderate expenditure will permanently fix the river. Such reaches should be secured as soon as possible and before capricious changes shall have time to transform the river and make correction difficult.

3. The improvement on intervening reaches can progress as favorable opportunities for economical work are presented, and thus the detached sections are ultimately joined in harmony with the general scheme of systematic correction for the whole river.

4. The alternative of this manner of correcting the river will prove so vastly expensive as to arouse antagonisms which will defeat the whole scheme of river improvement.

(*a*) To begin at the mouth of the river and work upstream will involve constant watchfulness and expense to hold the head of the work.

(*b*) To carry on the work of improvement continuously up or down stream will require dikes and other works of enormous cost to force the river into a channel of such curves and character that it may be permanently held.

(*c*) A long period of time is required for the new banks to form and reclaimed areas to build up, and meantime heavy cost is entailed for maintenance and contingencies.

5. The preponderance of Congressional enactments have called for the systematic improvement of the river according to the policy herein outlined.

6. The selection of localities where the work of systematic improvement of the river shall be first undertaken should be governed by the following principles:

(*a*) The reach should be in most favorable condition for permanent improvement, so that a maximum extent of river can be corrected and secured at a minimum cost.

(*b*) The improvement of navigation being the primary object, the work should be done where this interest will be most benefited.

(*c*) When the foregoing conditions are equally met, preference should be given to that locality which has other important interests to be conserved; and

(*d*) The relative importance of such interests should be given due weight. "The greatest good to the greatest number" should always govern.

III.—Cities meet Requirements.

The application of the foregoing principles will clearly point to the large cities as the only localities on the river fully meeting all the requirements.

1. The most populous centers furnish the greatest number to be benefited.

2. The elements which make up a great city and trade center concentrate within a limited area larger values and a greater number of interests dependent on a well-regulated river channel than can elsewhere be found on hundreds of miles of the stream. The interests at stake along the river bottoms in the vicinity of cities are very great and entitled to protection from forces beyond local control.

3. The improvement of the river at large cities will be most benefit to navigation. Through shifting channels and over bars and shoals craft can be guided and navigation can be carried on in the country

without river improvement, but a fixed and permanent channel is absolutely necessary in front of cities.

(*a*) At the cities are the harbors and landings.

(*b*) Bridges are located at these points and the river must be kept under the proper spans for the passage of boats.

(*c*) Navigation on the river is at present largely confined to the vicinity of the cities.

4. The conditions for favorable improvement will naturally be expected in the vicinity of the cities. Before railroads penetrated the country the entire traffic was by way of the river. At convenient places landings were established and villages grew about them. If the river channel shifted the landing was abandoned and the village deserted. If the river remained stationary the village grew in size and importance; hence by a sort of natural selection the cities have been located on those reaches of the river least subject to radical changes. If any reach on the river can be most successfully improved it should be found in the vicinity of a large city.

(As will be hereinafter seen the most favorable conditions for permanent improvement exist on the Omaha reach at the present time.)

5. There are other cogent reasons why the vicinity of large cities should be selected for the first work of systematic improvement of the Missouri River.

(*a*) The great value of real estate and immense property interests located at these populous centers will induce private expenditures to supplement that of the Government.

(*b*) Future improvement on the city reaches is liable to be enormously increased in cost by vested rights, and the increasing number of points to which the river must conform, and also by undesirable changes in the channel.

(*c*) Not the best enterprise, but that which commands the confidence of the greatest number will succeed. If the scheme for the systematic improvement of the Missouri River is a worthy one, it is desirable as a matter of policy that the work be done where many thousands can examine and become convinced of its value, and where by directly conserving the interests of a great number their support and hearty influence is enlisted in its favor. If these cities are neglected not only will great bodies of citizens be indifferent to the whole policy of river improvement, but they will become directly antagonistic to the whole scheme.

IV.—Omaha and Vicinity.

1. Omaha, with Council Bluffs and other cities and towns in its immediate vicinity, constitutes the most populous and important commercial center on the Missouri River. It is the gateway of the great West. The stream of interstate and transcontinental traffic crossing the river at and near this point is greater by far than the totals carried on all the craft navigating all the rivers of the whole Mississippi Valley.

2. The principal industries, consisting of locomotive and car shops, railroad bridges, yards and depots, silver-smelting and refining works, distilleries, sawmills, lumber yards, electric-light plants, waterworks, breweries, warehouses, and the many enterprises which make possible a great city, embracing practically all the industries of Omaha and Council Bluffs which depend on transportation facilities, are located upon the bottoms underlying the bluffs, and must of necessity remain on these low level lands in the river valley.

In this valley adjacent to the river has been developed at an expense

of several million dollars the important manufacturing district of East Omaha.

The river is here spanned by 3 splendid bridges, one of which, viz, that built by the Omaha Bridge and Terminal Railway Company, and located under the direction of the Secretary of War, is a low bridge, with the longest and largest draw in the world, and stands in the river valley about equidistant from the lines of neighboring bluffs.

3. Since the organization of the Missouri River Commission only a small proportion of the money appropriated for the improvement of the river has been expended at Omaha. Other cities no more important and no more needy or deserving, but more clamorous, perhaps, have received the greater attention. The amounts expended at various places by the commission, as shown from its report for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1893, is as follows:

Kansas City, Mo	$658,021.76
Jefferson City, Mo. (first reach)	459,175.77
St. Joseph, Mo	287,283.10
Omaha, Nebr	120,736.64
Council Bluffs, Iowa	111,098.25

An immense sum has been expended by corporations and individuals at Omaha to protect their property from destruction by the river, as follows:

Omaha and Grant Smelting Co	$730,000
The American Water Works Co	437,000
Union Pacific Railway Co	300,000
Chicago and Northwestern R. R. Co	75,000
Burlington and Missouri River R. R. Co	100,000
Omaha Bridge and Terminal R. R. Co	75,000
Other parties	100,000
	1,767,000

This expenditure by private parties has been to protect their private property, not to improve the navigation of the river. It may be made a valuable contribution to that end by the active cooperation of the General Government.

5. The navigation in the vicinity of Omaha has become more dangerous, owing to radical changes in the river channel, and which can not go on indefinitely without serious injury to navigation.

(*a*) Previous to the year 1877 navigation of the Missouri River at Omaha formed a large and important interest. In that year 47 steamboats, of an aggregate tonnage of about 12,000 tons, passed the port of Omaha.

(*b*) At this time, also, the disturbances in the river channel, which had been going on for several years, culminated in a disastrous cut-off directly in front of the city, and navigation became more and more dangerous as the year went by, with the result that traffic has been practically driven from this part of the Missouri River. That it remains on other portions of the river where the Government has been more liberal in expenditures is proof of the occasion of its leaving Omaha, and emphasizes the neglect of that place.

(*c*) Within the last few years an effort has been made to organize a line of packets and barges for the transportation of grain and other agricultural products in bulk to St. Louis and ports down the river, but owing to the extreme hazard of navigation in this neglected portion of the Missouri River, the promoters of the enterprise were compelled to abandon it.

6. The Government improvement at Omaha has not been properly effective, owing to lack of systematic and continuous work. In 1878 Congress, at the urgent solicitation of the people of the State of Nebraska,

made an appropriation for the improvement of the river. Since that date there has been, for the same purpose, other appropriations made at irregular intervals, amounting in all to $200,000 or $300,000.

The work of the Government now remaining is about 5 miles of revetment on the Iowa bank northwest of the city of Council Bluffs; but no adequate work has been undertaken in the bend above, and for several years the river has been rapidly cutting into the Nebraska shore near Florence Lake, threatening extensive changes throughout the Omaha reach.

7. The damages already suffered are very extended, and among these may be mentioned—

(*a*) Many hundred acres of valuable land have been washed away, the material of which has been deposited in the river, forming shoals and bars dangerous to navigation.

(*b*) A part of the Government revetment referred to has been destroyed, and a dangerous pocket formed in the Iowa shore, just above the East Omaha bridge, which endangers all the protection work below it.

(*c*) The current has been deflected from the pocket with sufficient force to shift the main channel from under the draw of the Terminal Company's bridge, making the passage of boats through the draw very hazardous.

8. The damages threatened are also extensive, and may be set forth as follows:

(*a*) As cutting progresses on the Nebraska shore, north of Florence Lake, and the bend becomes deeper, the current of the river will be deflected farther north on the Iowa shore until it impinges upon and destroys the dikes at the head of the Government revetment.

(*b*) When the dikes are gone the 5 miles of revetment below them will be utterly destroyed or rendered useless.

(*c*) Unless the pocket mentioned above be properly masked the main channel of the river will be thrown to the west side at the site of the bridge of the Omaha Bridge and Terminal Railway Company and the draw filled with a sand bar, totally obstructing navigation.

(*d*) Unless the cutting near Florence Lake is checked radical changes of the river will occur for several miles below and necessitate works of a very extensive and costly character to preserve the course of the stream under the three bridges.

9. The changes due to the cut-off of 1877 just above the smelting works and other disturbances have worked themselves out; and generally the course of the river and its stability have steadily improved up to the present time. It is now in as good condition for permanent improvement as can be expected. Material changes from natural causes in the future are likely to be disadvantageous and highly detrimental to very important interests that have adjusted themselves to the course the river is now shaping and will greatly increase the cost of the future improvement of the river at this point.

10. The damages already suffered can be repaired and those threatened can be prevented by a reasonable expenditure if it is made at once.

11. The improvements which are obviously necessary at Omaha at the present time may be stated as follows:

(*a*) The pocket will require a substantial system of dikes and cross dikes, by which the pocket is to be recovered and a new shore line established so that the channel will follow the Iowa shore to the vicinity of the new bridge, about three-fourths of a mile below the pocket.

(*b*) Florence Bend should have a revetment from Florence down for about 3 miles.

(*c*) The river at the Northwestern Dikes should be trained and secured in a definite course so as to give an easy run into the bend below without direct assault on the banks. The proper and easy control below demands a fixed course in this locality.

(*d*) On the Iowa shore above Florence some work is needed to give positive direction to the stream in Florence Bend and keep the channel against the waterworks revetment at Florence.

12. These works cover what is required to put the reach under control and thus permanently improve 10 to 12 miles of the most important part of the Missouri River. The aggregate cost is estimated at about $350,000.

At no other locality will the expenditure of such a sum restore to navigation so valuable a stretch of river and conserve interests of such magnitude. For 10 miles below Omaha the river is in a course so favorable that its correction can follow the systematic treatment of the Omaha Reach with every assurance of success and thus may be worked out a systematic improvement in harmony with sound principles.

V.—Prayer.

We therefore earnestly and most respectfully pray that such a policy of the systematic improvement of the Missouri River may be adopted as will include the Omaha reach within its scope and that such modifications of the present laws, if any are necessary, may be made as will permit the Missouri River Commission to speedily enter upon the work of securing the river in the vicinity of that city in a fixed and permanent channel.

And your memorialists will ever pray.

Lorenzo Crounse, governor of Nebraska.
John C. Allen, secretary of state.
Eugene Moore, auditor public accounts.
J. S. Bartley, State treasurer.
Geo. H. Hastings, attorney-general.
A. K. Goudy, superintendent public instruction.
J. B. Erion, deputy commissioner labor and statistics.
F. M. Ross, deputy oil inspector Nebraska.
R. H. Townley, secretary department banking Nebraska.
James D. Gage, adjutant-general Nebraska National Guard.
T. L. Norval, chief justice supreme court Nebraska.
A. M. Post, judge supreme court.
Robert Ryan, commissioner Nebraska supreme court.
Frank Irvine, commissioner Nebraska supreme court.
John M. Ragan, commissioner Nebraska supreme court.
Fred. J. Sackett, county clerk Douglas County, Nebr.
H. B. Irey, county treasurer Douglas County, Nebr.
F. B. Bryant, deputy treasurer Douglas County, Nebr.
J. E. House, county surveyor Douglas County, Nebr.
Geo. W. Hill, superintendent public instruction Douglas County.
John C. Drexel, sheriff Douglas County Nebr.
Irving F. Baxter, county judge Douglas County, Nebr.
J. L. Kaley, county attorney Douglas County, Nebr.
M. O. Maul, coroner Douglas County, Nebr.

E. M. Stenberg,
Henry Livesey,
John Jenkins,
G. R. Williams,
Joseph W. Paddock,
} Board of county commissioners, Douglas County, Nebr.

George L. Miller, surveyor of customs, Omaha, Nebr.
J. E. North, collector internal revenue, district of Nebraska.
P. O'Malley, deputy collector internal revenue, district of Nebraska.
T. S. Clarkson, postmaster of Omaha.
W. N. Babcock, C. O. Lobeck, } Members Nebraska State senate from Douglas County.
George W. Ames, Thomas D. Crane, Charles A. Goss, M. O. Ricketts, } Members Nebraska house of representatives from Douglas County.
George P. Bemis, mayor of Omaha.
W. C. Wakeley, city clerk, Omaha.
J. T. Evans, deputy city clerk, Omaha.
Henry Bolln, city treasurer, Omaha.
J. K. Coulter, deputy city treasurer, Omana.
Theodore Olsen, comptroller, Omaha.
W. J. Connell, city attorney, Omaha.
Andrew Rosewater, city engineer, Omaha.
J. H. Winnspear, chairman board public works, Omaha.
John B. Furay, sewer commissioner and member board public works, Omaha.
Edward E. Howell, president city council, Omaha.
H. Jacobsen, Robert H. Holmes, John Lemly, Albert Cahn, A. B. McAndrews, C. Specht, Charles L. Thomas, P. M. Back, Frank J. Burkley, Daniel H. Wheeler, } Members city council, Omaha.
A. N. Furgason, judge district court.
M. R. Hopewell, judge Fourth judicial district, Nebraska.
G. W. Ambrose, judge Fourth judicial district, Nebraska.
Joseph H. Blair, judge Fourth judicial district, Nebraska.
Wm. W. Keysor, judge Fourth judicial district, Nebraska.
Frank E. Moores, clerk district court.
A. Steere, jr., deputy clerk district court.
Clinton M. Powell, president board of education, Omaha.
Frank A. Fitspatrick, superintendent instruction, Omaha.
J. M. Gillan, secretary board of education, Omaha.
James B. Meikle, attorney for board of education, Omaha.
A. P. Tukey, F. W. Brandhawer, Henry C. Akin, I. O. Rhoades, F. B. Lowe, G. F. Burgess, R. W. Gibson, Henry Knodell, Chas. L. Jaynes, Jno. L. Pierson, Josepf T. Duryea, Chas. S. Elgutter, } Members of the board of education of the city of Omaha.
Samuel MacLeod, superintendent school buildings, Omaha.

W. A. L. Gibbon, president board of trade, Omaha.
M. B. Smith, secretary board of trade, Omaha.
J. E. Utt, Com. Commercial Club, Omaha.
Geo. H. Boggs, president Omaha Real Estate Exchange.
H. W. Yates, president Nebraska National Bank.
H. Kounze, president First National Bank.
John Rush, president Nebraska Savings and Exchange Bank.
C. W. Lyman, president Commercial National Bank.
J. N. Cornish, president National Bank of Commerce.
Frank Murphy, president Merchants' National Bank.
Ben. B. Wood, cashier Merchants' National Bank.
J. H. Millard, president Omaha National Bank.
C. W. Hamilton, president U. S. National Bank.
A. U. Wyman, president Omaha Loan and Trust Company.
John J. McCague, president American National Bank.
M. C. Acheson, president McCague Savings Bank.
J. A. Creighton, vice-president First National Bank.
John A. McShane, president Union Stock Yards Company.
E. Rosewater, editor Omaha Bee.
G. H. Hitchcock, editor Omaha World-Herald.
Thos. L. Kimball, president Omaha Union Depot Company.
S. H. H. Clark, for Union Pacific Railway Company and its receivers.
G. W. Holdrege, general manager Burlington and Missouri R. R. in Nebraska.
J. O. Phillippi, assistant general freight agent Missouri Pacific R. R.
J. M. Wollworth, attorney at law.
Andrew J. Poppleton, attorney at law.
John D. Howe, attorney at law.
H. T. Clark, merchant.
D. Baum, president Baum Iron Company.
W. J. Broatch, wholesale iron.
Thos. Kilpatrick, president Kilpatrick-Koch Dry Goods Company.
Wm. W. Wood, acting mayor South Omaha.
Henry Ditzen, city clerk South Omaha.
W. B. Wyman, member city council South Omaha.
Jno. F. Coad, president Packers' National Bank.
H. C. Bostwick, cashier South Omaha National Bank.
Thos. B. McPherson, cashier Union Stock Yards National Bank.
W. M. Babcock, general manager Union Stock Yards Company.
A. H. Noyes, manager G. H. Hammond Company.
E. A. Cudahy, vice-president Cudahy Packing Company.
T. W. Taliaferro, manager Omaha Packing Company.
A. C. Foster, manager Swift & Co.,
J. M. Glasgow, postmaster South Omaha.
Bruce McCulloch, editor Daily Stockman, South Omaha.
W. Wallace, president Waggoner-Birney Company.
Geo. Burke, of Geo. Burke & Frazer.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 165

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 26, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Rules and ordered to be printed.

Mr. GRAY submitted the following

AMENDMENT

Intended to be proposed to Rule XIX of the Rules of the Senate:

Resolved, That Rule XIX be amended by adding thereto the following paragraph:

Fourth. No Senator shall read a speech, nor shall he read from any book or paper except it may be to quote an authority or illustrate a point or argument which he is making, without unanimous consent.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 166.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 27, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on the Judiciary and ordered to be printed.

Mr. TELLER presented the following

MEMORIAL FROM THE MEMBERS OF THE BAR OF THE SECOND JUDICIAL CIRCUIT OF THE INDIAN TERRITORY AS TO CONDITION OF AFFAIRS IN THAT TERRITORY.

To the U. S. Senate and House of Representatives:

The committee of the Senate, Messrs. Teller, Platt, and Roach, having been in our midst and taken careful note of the condition of affairs existing in the Indian Territory, and upon a protracted conference with the undersigned, members of the bar for the second judicial division, having recommended that we memorialize Congress, pointing out defects and deficiencies in the judicial system in operation here, and indicating such amendments of and additions to the existing statutes as might seem most desirable, we would, therefore, respectfully but earnestly request that you give the matters referred to in this memorial your immediate and serious attention.

Outside of the Indian tribunals there is only one court of record in this Territory, known as the United States Court for the Indian Territory. This court has original civil jurisdiction in all cases where the matter in controversy exceeds $100, and appellate jurisdiction in all civil cases originating in the commissioner's court. On the criminal side the act creating the court gives it jurisdiction over most of the misdemeanors and certain felonies provided for in Mansfield's Digest of the Arkansas Statutes, down to and including those of the year 1884; also certain offenses designated in the U. S. Statutes, such as introducing intoxicating liquors, selling same to Indians, unprovoked assaults with dangerous instruments, and a few others; but the graver crimes, affecting life and property, punishable under the U. S. Statutes, are triable exclusively in the U. S. district courts at Paris, Tex., and Fort Smith, Ark. There is, likewise, unlimited appeal in all cases, civil and criminal, to the U. S. circuit court of appeals for the eighth circuit at St. Louis, Mo. The Territory is divided into three judicial divisions, and two terms a year of the U. S. court are held in each division. It may be well to remind you that the area of each of these divisions is equal, and even superior, to that of some of the States. It goes without saying that the amount of business, civil and criminal, in all of these divisions is more than any judge (and our present judge is an unusually pushing one) can fully and satisfactorily dispose of. The consequence is that he is compelled to dispatch business with a haste which renders impossible the patient, judicial investigation often so essential to the elimination of truth in complex cases.

When it is stated that at the January term, 1894, of the court in this, the second division, the docket showed 589 criminal and 260 civil cases, many of the latter involving very large values, and that the docket in this division is the smallest of any of the three, you can form a conception of the magnitude of the task imposed upon one judge.

In addition to the U. S. court, the law provides for nine U. S. commissioners, three for each judicial division. These commissioners have the jurisdiction of justices of the peace in Arkansas, in civil cases, where the amount of the controversy does not exceed $100. In criminal cases their powers are merely those of an examining magistrate, with no authority whatever to finally try any offense.

The second judicial division, comprising the entire Choctaw Nation, even when equally divided between three commissioners, leaves the territory of each so large that the expense and inconvenience of attending court in a great many instances constitutes an embargo upon litigation, the expense to litigants in going to court and procuring the attendance of witnesses being greater than the amounts in controversy could possibly justify.

When we come to the criminal jurisdiction of the commissioners, the defect in the law appears still more glaring. In all the minor cases of misdemeanor, simple assault, disturbing the peace, violating the Sabbath, gambling, etc., defendants', as well as the Government's witnesses, are brought distances all the way from 1 to 150 miles. These witnesses receive from the Government full mileage and per diem for their attendance before the commissioner, and if the prisoner is bound over to court, this witness account is duplicated, and not unfrequently triplicated. The commissioner and marshal, of course, receive their fees, which are generous, and when the case comes to the U. S. eourt, the various court officials, including the U. S. attorney, receive large compensation for the final trial. A moment's reflection must convince any mind of the ruinous prodigality of this system, besides the outrage it entails of having persons dragged long distances from their home and friends to answer in so roundabout and troublesome a way for trifling infractions of the laws, which, in the States, are summarily disposed of by the justice of the peace or police magistrate. We think there is a crying necessity for several changes affecting both the U. S. court and the commissioner's court.

The more important of those relating to the commissioners are as follows:

First. An increase in the number of commissioners in each division, so that the people in every section of the Territory shall have a tribunal of easy access for the settlement of all their lesser grievances, civil and criminal. We are of opinion that not less than six commissioners in each division would be required to bring about this result; that the law at present governing commissioners should be so modified as to require that pleadings and practice in the commissioner's court be the same and governed by the same rules as obtain in the U. S. court.

Second. An enlargement of the jurisdiction of the commissioners by giving them concurrent jurisdiction with the U. S. court in all civil cases where the amount in controversy, exclusive of costs, exceeds $100 and does not exceed $300; also, giving the commissioners full power to finally try all cases of misdemeanor, with a right of appeal in civil cases to the U. S. court and trial *de novo* where the amount in controversy, exclusive of costs, exceeds $25, and in all criminal cases finally triable by them.

Third. A provision conferring on the commissioner authority to instruct the jury, which shall be in writing, but forbidding any comment by him on the evidence.

Fourth. Authority in the commissioner to grant one new trial in any civil case where the amount in controversy is less than $25, his trial to be by court or jury. Under the present law the commissioner can not set aside the verdict of a jury and grant a new trial.

Fifth. The judge, on the appointment by him of such additional commissioners as may be provided for by law, shall divide each judicial division into as nearly equal portions as practicable according to the number of commissioners, and shall assign each commissioner to a specific division, within the limits of which he shall have exclusive jurisdiction of all civil cases triable by him arising therein.

Your attention is especially invited to the necessity of a change in the law relative to appeals from the U. S. court to the U. S. circuit court of appeals. As before stated, it is at present unlimited, and in many cases it works great hardship on litigants. For instance, there are three lines of railway running north and south through the Territory. A large number of cattle, horses, and other stock are constantly being killed by the trains, and in numberless cases payment is refused by the company. Suit is brought for an animal, say $30, before the commissioner, and judgment obtained. The case is invariably appealed to the U. S. court and plaintiff again obtains judgment in a trial *de novo*. Almost in every instance the railroad company takes the case to the court of appeals. The result is that parties losing stock are in nine cases out of ten deterred from bringing suit and accept inadequate remuneration for the reason that they can not pursue the case through all these courts. The hardship, it seems to us, is manifest and ought to be removed without delay. Another pernicious result of this unlimited privilege of vexatious appeal is to burden the docket of the court of appeals with a large number of frivolous cases, which consume time which that court should devote to more important litigation. We therefore recommend that appeals from the U. S. court for the Indian Territory in civil cases be limited to cases wherein the amount in controversy exceeds $300.

We find ourselves hampered in the practice by the lack of an efficient law of garnishment. The chapter of Mansfield's Digest on the subject, to wit, chapter 71 not being included in the former act of Congress, we ask that that chapter be put in force in the Indian Territory; while chapter 29, relating to corporations was adopted, it will require additional legislation to render the same operative in this Territory under the peculiar conditions existing here. This will enable our people to form legal associations for religious, educational, and benevolent purposes, as well as for business enterprises.

But a still more comprehensive and important recommendation remains to be added.

It is manifest to even a cursory observer that the proper administration of the laws, civil and criminal, in this Territory is an overtask for one judge. We think that the time of a separate judge in each judicial division could all be profitably employed, and we are certain that if Congress gives the matter attention it can not fail to recognize the reasonableness of our request that it provide two additional judges for the U. S. court in the Indian Territory, so that there shall be a judge for each division. It is equally manifest that justice to the residents of this Territory, and the interests of the Government as well, demand that the jurisdiction, civil and criminal, now exercised by the Federal

courts at Paris, Tex., and Fort Smith, Ark., in the Indian Territory should be taken away and given to the court or courts in the Territory. One of the great complaints of the Declaration of Independence, that the citizen was removed an unreasonable distance from his home and friends to be tried for crime, is one which confronts you in this Territory to-day.

We feel assured that the committee of the Senate now here, the Dawes commission, and indeed all the representatives of the Government who have been sent to report upon the condition of affairs within the past four years, will join with us in testifying that, with sufficient tribunals, there exists no obstacle in this Territory to the proper and satisfactory administration within its limits of law, civil and criminal. The old bugaboo so persistently paraded by interested parties in Paris and Fort Smith that juries could not be found to execute the criminal statutes has been most effectually exploded, and experience has shown that more reliable jury material can not be found anywhere.

While we think the welfare of the Government as well as the people of this Territory would be best subserved by the immediate enactment of the changes last indicated, still with the many important national questions demanding your attention you may find it impracticable at the present session of Congress in the face of the opposition likely to arise to pass a measure embodying them, in which event we respectfully urge that the other changes suggested, to which no one will likely object, may become laws at an early date.

Yours, truly,

J. G. HARLEY,
J. A. HALE,
H. L. HAYNES,
WM. COSTIGAN,
T. N. FOSTER,
Committee of South MacAlester Bar

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 167.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 27, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Organization, Conduct, and Expenditures of the Executive Departments and ordered to be printed.

Mr. SHERMAN presented the following:

STATEMENT OF W. I. LEWIS, FORMERLY A CLERK IN THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT, IN OPPOSITION TO THE PROPOSED LEGISLATION TO IMPROVE THE METHODS OF ACCOUNTING IN THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT BY ABOLISHING THE OFFICE OF COMMISSIONER OF CUSTOMS AND GIVING THE POWER TO FINALLY EXAMINE AND CERTIFY ACCOUNTS AND CLAIMS AGAINST THE UNITED STATES TO THE FIRST AUDITOR, SUBJECT ONLY TO AN APPEAL UNDER LIMITED CONDITIONS TO THE FIRST COMPTROLLER OF THE TREASURY.

[House bill No. 5750, "to improve the methods of accounting in the Department of the Treasury and for other purposes."]

OBJECTIONS TO THE PROPOSED LEGISLATION—REASONS SHOWING IT TO BE UNWISE, AND THAT IT WILL NOT IMPROVE THE METHODS OF ACCOUNTING IN THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT.

The office of Commissioner of Customs was created in 1849 to relieve the then overburdened Comptroller.

In a letter dated December 9, 1848, transmitting his annual report to Congress, the Hon. Robert J. Walker, then Secretary of the Treasury, one of the ablest Secretaries we have ever had, said:

> The office of the Comptroller of the Treasury should be divided, and that great and augmenting portion of his duties relating to the receipts from customs and the accounts of collectors and other officers of the customs should be devolved upon the head of a new bureau, to be called "the Commissioner of Customs." Combined, as now are under the First Comptroller, the duties appertaining both to receipts and expenditures of the public money, accounts, and claims, the office is overburdened with business which can not promptly and properly be performed by any one individual, however able and laborious.

So Congress, after due deliberation, created the office of the Commissioner of Customs. The largest portion of the income of the Government is obtained from the customs duties, involving accounts upward of $204,000,000 during the last fiscal year.

By a comparison of the amount of customs duties collected now and the amount collected when this office was created in 1849 it would seem that if there was a necessity then for establishing the office of Commissioner of Customs that necessity must be still greater now.

But it is claimed in the report of the Joint Commission, No. 409, that the powers of the Commissioner of Customs are not such as were given him at the creation of the office. It is true that some jurisdiction, for

various causes, has been absorbed by the office of the Secretary of the Treasury, but it is also true that jurisdiction over additional accounts appertaining to several branches of the service have been added, viz: Life-Saving Service, Shipping Commission, Commission of Immigration, and Chinese Exclusion, and the business of the Government has so largely increased, that the duties of this office are now very much larger than when the office was created.

In the report of the Joint Commission, No. 409, it is stated that—

> If the Commissioner of Customs had such powers as were given to him at the creation of the office there might be some reason for the existence of the office; but as it is now the said office has no particular function to perform except to revise the customs accounts which have been previously audited by the First Auditor of the Treasury.

The facts are that, in addition to the examination of 6,135 auditors' certificates and 16,216 accounts adjusted with accompanying vouchers and papers, there has been performed in the office of Commissioner of Customs in the last fiscal year the following work with which the Auditor had no connection, as appears from the annual report of the Commissioner of Customs, viz: 2,695 estimates received and examined and requisitions issued, involving $16,536,915.31; 24,264 letters received and 8,839 letters written; 9,228 letters recorded; 190,107 stubs of receipts for duties and fees returned by collectors; 171,829 stubs of receipts for duties and fees examined and summarized; 12,956 tonnage stubs examined; 13,394 tonnage stubs received and entered; 6,269 auditors' certificates registered; 18,372 papers filed, noted, and referred; 4,906 appointments registered; 2,951 auditors' certificates checked by the stubs; oaths examined and registered, official bonds examined and approved, and commissions transmitted, 2,219; and 190 attorneys registered. (Annual Report Commissioner of Customs, 1893.)

That office looks after these matters, all incident to a proper settlement of the accounts, the collection of revenues, and payment of expenditures; bonds are taken from collectors; fines and forfeitures are kept track of; unclaimed and seized goods are watched, and the stub system is a safeguard and pays much more than it costs. The keeping and comparing of transportation and exportation business requires constant attention of that office. A record of refund cases is required by law; also emolument accounts; public fund and cash statements are to be examined and checked and a large miscellaneous correspondence is necessary to a proper settlement of accounts.

The clerks of that office have been there a long number of years, and have become expert accountants in their special accounts and understand the law relating to such accounts, and to place all this work in the First Auditor's office and put new clerks on it would require a much larger force than the experts have mentioned in their report, and under the proposed change with new clerks, mistakes would be easily made; and if the mistake is against the Government, the claimant will not appeal to the Comptroller and the account settled as stated by the clerk will go into the files and the mistake will never be discovered. Bear in mind that the Auditor himself does not examine the account, nor make the computations; the clerks do that and the Auditor approves the sum totals. In the final settlement and collection of balances due when officers retire, especially when there are controverted questions of law and fact, then the system for the settlement of accounts by *one officer* will be found to be very weak, as is the case in the settlements of accounts by the Auditor of the

Treasury for the Post-Office Department, which is exceptionally weak as will appear by the following:

In January, 1886, the House of Representatives passed a resolution calling on the Sixth Auditor for a report of "all balances due to and from the United States as shown by the books of the offices of the Register and Sixth Auditor of the Treasury Department, from 1789 to June 30, 1885," and in reply dated March 10, 1886, Hon. D. McConville, the then Auditor, said in his letter:

> I have the honor to inform you that it will probably require the entire services of 25 clerks four years to prepare the statement required by the terms of the resolution, from this office.

The Commissioner of Customs office is a comptrolling office and a proper function of a comptrolling office is to exhaust all legal means for the collection of moneys due the Government as much as to examine and settle an account, and under the present system it would not take but a few clerks four days, in the Commissioner of Customs office, to prepare a statement of balances if called for by Congress.

If the past experience has any weight in this matter, surely the establishment of this Bureau has been a wise and economical measure.

Take the figures from the books of the Treasury (*see* Finance Report of the Secretary, 1893) as to the receipts and disbursements in customs matters for a number of years, say, thirteen years immediately before the establishment of this office, from 1837 to 1849, inclusive, the receipts were $267,963,513.09, the loss $1,737,758, or about $6,500, to each million of dollars collected. The expenditures for same period were about $18,000,000, and the loss about $25,000, or about $1,400 on each million of dollars disbursed.

Now, take the receipts from 1881 to 1893, inclusive, thirteen years, $2,713,773,187.54 (*see* Annual Report Commissioner of Customs, 1893), the loss $870.17, or about 32 cents on each million collected. The expenditures for the same period were $280,824,420.12, and the outstanding balances $111,469.54, or $3.97 on each $1,000,000 disbursed.

These figures speak louder than any clamor for change in the system which has worked so admirably.

The Commissioner of Customs, in his annual report for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1893, says:

> The amount of unadjusted indebtedness standing on the books of the Treasury arising from accounts, the settlement of which pertains to this office, is very small * * * in transactions aggregating more than $3,000,000,000, a record of which any government may well be proud.

In the light of the past, is it wise to make the contemplated radical change not yet sanctioned by experience?

Heretofore duties on imports have been the largest single source of revenue to the Government, and will probably continue to be when the commerce and the business of the country are again adjusted on a firm basis; and as the loss has been so small (32 cents on a million) in collecting this large revenue, would it be wise to make radical changes for the sake of change? It may be claimed that some large corporations of the country have had the necessary experience to make such change. But in the light of the financial disasters to railroads all over the country, the comparison of losses between their systems of accounting and financial methods and the system of accounting and financial methods of the Government, judging from results, are very largely in favor of the present safe system of accounting by the Government.

A careful and intelligent examination of the existing system of accounting in all its bearings will show that no person, however expert an accountant, without previous practical experience in the office of the Commissioner of Customs, can go into the Treasury and in a few days, or even months, make an examination of the methods of accounting and understand the scope and appreciate the value of the different parts, and arrive at a correct and safe conclusion.

The law now provides for two sets of accounting officers, an auditing and revising office; both are required to examine and certify all accounts under their jurisdiction.

In theory each makes an independent examination; the revising office examining the accounts after they have been certified by the Auditor, just as it would if no previous examination had been made.

But it will be shown that in practice there is an important distinction. If that were not true then the system would apparently provide for a duplication of the work.

The examination of accounts as to the character of the work may be divided into two classes, one clerical, and the other judicial.

The clerical consists in making computations, and seeing that the vouchers are properly receipted, certified, and dated; this requires care and fidelity; therefore a second examination of that character must be to insure such care and fidelity, and to detect and correct errors overlooked.

The principal object of a second examination, however, is to see that all laws and regulations restricting expenditures, and the acts of agents, officers, and other persons having accounts with the Government, have been complied with; ascertaining if the articles purchased and labor employed have been applied to the object provided for by the appropriation from which the expenditures have been made, and whether such were for the service of the fiscal year for which the appropriation was made, or come within a provision of law excepting them from such requirement; and, if furnished by contract, whether there has been strict compliance with the terms of the contract.

This requires a knowledge of the special statutes pertaining to such cases and of the general laws and also the decisions relative to the subject-matter; a clear comprehension of the meaning of words and an experienced judgment in applying the statutes.

In order to operate as an efficient check upon extravagant and illegal expenditures, this work must be done by experienced men of knowledge and ability, and with scrupulous care and fidelity.

This work is now being performed by men of ability and long experience in the office of the Commissioner of Customs, experts in customs accounts.

Under the present system the object of a second examination or revision of the accounts examined by the auditor is fourfold; to maintain the efficiency of the examinations made in the Auditor's office; to prevent fraudulent allowances and to provide additional means for detecting and preventing illegal expenditures; and to enforce a compliance with the law.

If this bill No. 5750 becomes a law and the revision of the examination made in the Auditor's office is done away with, then the accounts when certified by the Auditor will pass into the files and into obscurity, no matter how many illegal expenditures were passed over without question; there would hardly be the remotest chance for discovery and mistakes, fraud and collusion will never be detected, unless under very extraordinary circumstances, and even if discovered, the person ren-

dering the account and the clerk auditing the same would naturally claim it to be only a mistake and criminality would not lie.

If a disbursing officer makes an illegal expenditure or intentionally makes a mistake against the Government, and the account is passed by the clerk, intentionally, or by making the same mistake unintentionally (as is often the case in footing columns, as every experienced accountant knows), or when a claimant is paid the amount of his claim, be it illegal or the result of a mistake, he will let the matter go and remain silent, and the clerk who passes the account will not call attention to it, and thereby disclose his part in the transaction, and it will never be found.

A collector or other customs officer, or a claimant having accounts with the Government, would naturally make the acquaintance of the clerk who has charge of his accounts, as they have in the past, with no thought of fraud or collusion. As the system now stands, there are two offices and two clerks to collude with; but with only one clerk between him and the Government, with no means of detecting carelessness, negligence, or fraud, collusion to a dishonestly inclined person would naturally be suggested.

The provision of the bill seems to be admirably arranged for claimants and delinquents, but directly adverse to the interests of the Government. The Auditor's decisions are to be final in all cases not appealed. An appeal to the First Comptroller is provided for in the bill, but no decision in favor of a claimant or delinquent would ever be appealed, and the Auditor would not appeal from his own decision, and no one else would know anything about it, and there would be no protection for the Government.

The certificate of the Auditor would disclose no question of law or fact, and the Secretary of the Treasury and the First Comptroller would have no knowledge of the questions passed upon in the examination of a claim or account thus passed by the Auditor, whatever might be allowed. But every decision against a claimant could be appealed to the First Comptroller and tried over again.

But under some extraordinary circumstances, if the Comptroller should discover that an illegal allowance had been made by the Auditor and should take an appeal and decide against the claimant, such action would be of doubtful avail. When the allowance was made the claimant would promptly secure payment, and it would be very doubtful if the money could be recovered back upon a subsequent disallowance by the Comptroller. A suit would have to be instituted against the claimant, and even if a judgment should be obtained in many cases it would be impossible to collect the money.

It does not seem to be a very wise policy to pay the claimant first and then try to get the money back afterward.

Where such multiplex and enormous personal interests are at stake, would it be wise to abolish this safeguard of the Treasury? The value of a second examination for the purpose of preventing fraud and collusion can not be doubted. In said Report No. 409, page 5, the experts state that of 500 accounts revised by the Commissioner of Customs' office, covering a period of two months, and aggregating a total amount involved of $48,022,523.33, it was found that the results of these accounts were not changed, with but one error found, etc. Now, does this not prove the efficiency and preventive nature of the system and the fidelity of the clerks and those rendering the accounts, as well as the efficiency of the clerks? In a healthy condition of the present system, would not this result be precisely what should be expected? Because there has been no attempt for a long time to burglarize the U. S. Treasury,

would it be wise to abolish the watchmen, the safeguards of the building, and thereby economize the money paid to them for salaries? It would undoubtedly simplify matters, but would it be safe?

Following the line of argument of the Joint Commission, it might be suggested that there is no necessity for the revision of the bills passed by the House of Representatives, and hence the Senate is unnecessary and extravagant; in fact there are not wanting advocates of a single legislative body in this country and in Europe.

Is there safety in ill-considered haste to change an accounting system which our fathers, in their wisdom, established, and which has had the approval of wise Secretaries of the Treasury?

Experience has shown that there is wisdom in revision.

The greater portion of all questions of law which are raised and decided in the statement of accounts is the work of the revising offices. Emphatically so as to the office of Commissioner of Customs; and while the amount of money may sometimes be small, the decision of the question of law in the case may prevent future payments of magnitude or prevent the misapplication of appropriations and erroneous interpretation of laws. The usefulness of these decisions can not be measured in terms of money; they must be measured by right and justice and good government. They prevent unauthorized violations of law which would otherwise demoralize the public service.

This revising office has established a long list of admirable decisions, compared to which the auditing office can show little in value. The attention of the clerks in the Auditor's office is directed especially to the collection of evidence and to a formal statement of the accounts, while the Commissioner of Customs is concerned in the question whether the facts presented by the Auditor are in accordance with the law, hence the revising offices have developed a more highly trained judgment in the construction and application of statutes, which is the highest function of the present accounting system. It is proposed that collectors should forward all original papers pertaining to entries, including original invoices with appraisers' returns noted thereon, and the returns of the weigher and gauger to the Auditor. In the report of the joint committee it is stated that—

> The purpose of the bill is not only to reduce expenditures, but is to effect an efficient audit and active supervision of the customs accounts by the First Auditor of the Treasury, to prevent unnecessary duplication of work, and to expedite public business.

As to the first purpose of the bill to reduce expenditures, it will be found that to examine the original invoices from the collectors would require the employment of experts and translators in the Auditor's office. Frequently the goods imported have to be examined at the ports of entry, thus necessitating a continuance of experts and translators there also. This, with the additional labor involved upon the First Auditor's office, consisting of the work now performed by the Commissioner of Custom's office, and with which the Auditor has now no connection, would cost the Government more money than the present system. Therefore a reduction of expenditures would not be accomplished.

As to the second purpose of this bill, viz.: "To effect an efficient audit and active supervision of the customs accounts."

I wish to call special attention to the statement contained in the report of the Joint Commission, page 1, viz.:

> * * * About 90 per cent of the customs receipts come from offices where there are naval officers, and the Auditor has no original papers wherewith to check the

transcript of the accounts which is forwarded to him by the collector and certified as correct by the naval officer. For the other ports, where there are no naval officers, the accounts of the collectors are accompanied by a copy of the merchant's entries.

Now, these naval officers represent the Treasury Department, and it is their duty to make original investigation of manifests, invoices and entries of goods imported, and to estimate the duties, independently of the collector and *before* the duties are paid; and after duties are paid it is their further duty to examine the collector's acounts and abstracts and to certify to their correctness. (Customs Regulations, 1892, art. 1040–1042.)

The report of the Joint Committee further says, on page 1:

It is proposed that for all ports, *except New York*, the collectors shall forward to the Auditor, with their statement of accounts, original consular invoices with the appraisers returns noted thereon, and the returns of the weigher and gauger, if any. This will give the Auditor the facilities for making a complete and satisfactory audit of the customs officers accounts.

Over 76 per cent of the 90 per cent of customs receipts at the ports referred to are now collected at the excepted port of New York, and according to the above proposition the accounts covering less than 24 per cent of those receipts will go to the Auditor, on which a complete and satisfactory audit can be made.

The examination of these papers by the Auditor would be a duplication of work, which can not be done so efficiently by the Auditor as by the naval officers, and it would not be wise to abolish the naval officers, as the investigations made by these officers, who are agents of the Treasury Department, are made *before* the duties are paid, and errors made by the collectors in estimating the duties and liquidating the entries can be corrected in time to secure the proper duties. The naval officer is there where all the transaction takes place and can investigate and adjust every step of the proceeding which may be unsatisfactory. The First Auditor could not make such investigation and adjustment; he could only review the papers *after* the duties were collected and the transaction closed. If, after liquidation and accounts rendered, the Auditor should discover that an error in the rate of duty had been made, he would be helpless to correct it. (Heyl's Digest, 1891, Customs Admin. act of 1890, sec. 14, p. 115, 26 Stat. at L., sec., 14, p. 131.)

To supplant the simultaneous investigation of transactions *before* they are completed by an officer of the Treasury Department who is present and can see what is being done by an examination at a distance of papers *representing* these transactions hardly seems to be an improvement of methods.

Collectors of customs are chargeable only with the amount of duties collected, and any additional charge by the Auditor founded on the examination of those papers would be illegal.

Notwithstanding these facts it is proposed to adopt the above method, so valueless. The report of the joint commission, No. 409, on p. 1 says:

It is proposed to give the First Auditor in Washington more facilities for obtaining an accurate check upon accounts of collectors, and this will protect the Government to a much greater degree than it is now protected by the office of the Commissioner of Customs. * * *

Suppose those papers would be of some value to the accounting officers, why not require them to be furnished under the existing system, without destroying *much more valuable safeguards*. The Secretary of the Treasury has now, and always has had, authority to require that all

necessary papers be furnished with accounts to the Treasury Department. The Treasury regulations of 1892, sec. 887, require that the liquidated duties shall be certified on the entry by the proper officer.

If the work of the office of Commissioner of Customs is an unnecessary duplication, what a commentary it is on the auditing system of the Government which has prevailed since the days of Hamilton, and what a commentary on the wisdom of the great Secretary of the Treasury, Robert J. Walker, who recommended the establishment of this office, and what a commentary on the Congress which created it.

It is respectfully suggested that the U. S. Senate should stand true to its traditions and dignity, and whatever action is taken should be done with thoughtful and careful consideration, and with a full knowledge of all the facts in the matter.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 168.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 27, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on the District of Columbia and ordered to be printed.

The VICE-PRESIDENT presented the following

LETTER FROM THE COMMISSIONERS OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA RECOMMENDING AN APPROPRIATION OF $51,070 FOR REPAIRING CERTAIN PIERS OF THE AQUEDUCT BRIDGE, NEAR THE CITY OF WASHINGTON, OVER THE POTOMAC RIVER.

OFFICE COMMISSIONERS OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA,
Washington, April 26, 1894.

SIR: The District Commissioners have the honor to represent the urgent need of an appropriation for repairing the piers of the Aqueduct bridge over the Potomac River and to submit the following in explanation of the matter:

A crack in masonry pier No. 4, counting from the south end of the bridge, was discovered in May, 1892. The crack extended through the middle of a face of the pier from its top to the water, or for at least 30 feet.

In compliance with a Senate resolution of January 21, 1893, the Secretary of War caused a thorough examination of the piers of the bridge to be made under the direction of the Chief of Engineers.

The report of this examination was transmitted to the President of the Senate September 8, 1893.

The report states that six of the piers, including pier No. 4, have been undermined, more or less, at their upstream ends and that the estimated cost of repairing the piers is $51,070. More than half of the estimated cost is for pier No. 4.

The crack in this pier remained without observed change until the fall of 1893, when a widening of the crack was noticed.

In January, 1894, the pier was banded with iron rods.

During the early part of this month a second crack in the pier was discovered.

A box girder has lately been placed on top of the pier for transferring the weight of the adjacent spans from the insecure end of the pier to its middle.

No further precautions for temporarily securing the safety of the pier appear practicable, and, moreover, no funds are available for further work.

The failure of the pier, or of either of the other unsafe piers, would involve the loss of two spans of the bridge, and perhaps of human life.

The Commissioners therefore recommend a special appropriation of $51,070 for the repair of the Aqueduct bridge, to be made immediately available, and to be expended by contract or hired labor, and by the purchase of material in open market, in order to prevent delay in the prosecution of the work, and since the work, from its character, can not certainly be fully specified without further submarine examinations.

Inclosed is a tracing copied from the report of the examination made May, 1893, under the Chief of Engineers, showing, by shaded areas the portions undermined, the condition of the pier; also a photograph recently taken, showing the two cracks in the pier and the three sets of iron rods with which the pier was banded.

Very respectfully,

JOHN W. ROSS,
President Board of Commissioners, District of Columbia.

Hon. A. E. STEPHENSON,
President U. S. Senate.

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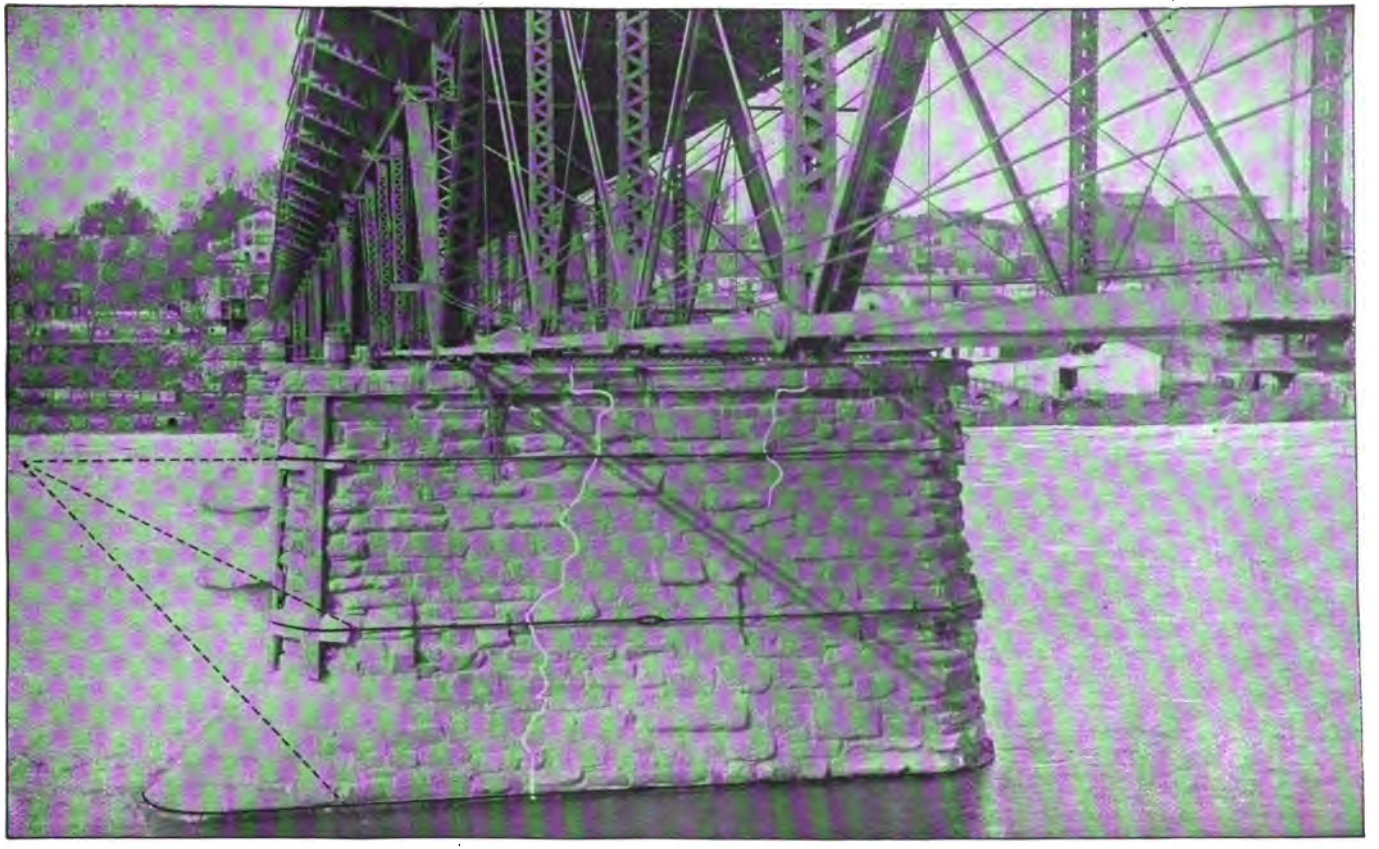
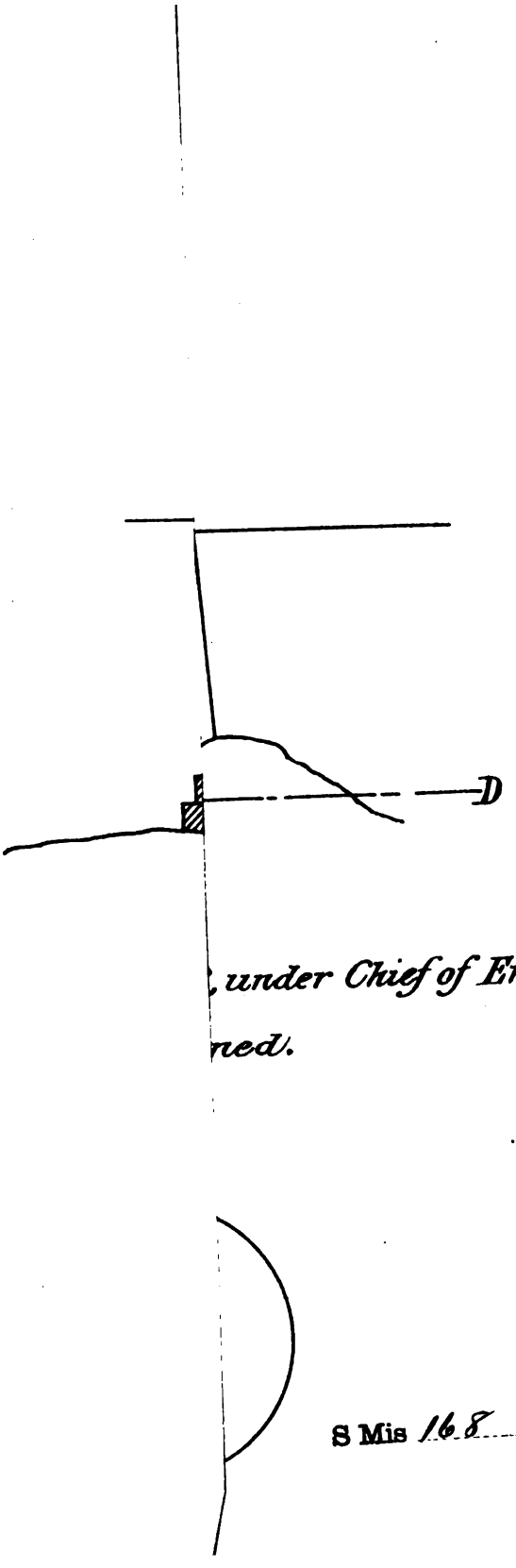
PIER No. 4, AQUEDUCT BRIDGE.

Iron rods 1¾ inches diameter, placed January, 1894.



First crack. Second crack

BOX GIRDER (NOT SHOWN) PLACED APRIL, 1894, TRANSFERS WEIGHT OF BRIDGE FROM END TO MIDDLE OF PIER.



under Chief of Engineers.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 169.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 30, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. HIGGINS submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Secretary of the Treasury be directed to send to the Senate statistics relative to trade between the United States and Canada, showing the imports and exports, by articles and years, down to the present year for such period and from such data as are available.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 170.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

APRIL 30, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Commerce and ordered to be printed.

PAPERS PRESENTED TO THE SENATE IN CONNECTION WITH SENATE BILL, NO. 1980, INTRODUCED BY SENATOR CHANDLER ON APRIL 30, 1894, FOR THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A FREE PORT AT FORT POND BAY, OR ELSEWHERE IN THE WATERS OF LONG ISLAND, IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

(1) A memorandum dated April 16, 1894, concerning the European free-port system, prepared by Mr. A. K. Tingle.
(2) Letter dated April 23, 1894, from E. Rosewater, esq., editor of the Omaha Bee, advocating the experiment of a free port in the United States.
(3) A description of Fort Pond Bay.
(4) A copy of the proposed bill (Senate bill No. 1980).

Memorandum concerning the European free-port system, prepared by Mr. A. K. Tingle at the request of Senator Chandler.

THE FREE PORTS OF GERMANY.

The free ports of Germany are part of the warehouse system of that country. There are three kinds of warehouses: The general warehouse, the limited, and the free, the latter being located within the territory of the free ports which are surrounded by walls within which the lading and unlading of vessels take place. Goods may remain within these warehouses for five years, at the end of which period they must be either exported or entered for consumption. These warehouses are the property of either the State, corporation, or private individuals, and the charges in all of them are regulated by the Government. Vessels entering these ports are exempt from all tonnage dues and other Government charges, and are treated in all respects, so far as Government tax is concerned, as if they were in foreign territory. The principal free ports of Germany are located at Hamburg and Bremen, and consist of certain inclosed territory, including docks and warehouses into which vessels from foreign ports are admitted, discharged, and laden, free from all duties and Government charges, and without the formalities and expenses incident to the entry of foreign merchandise at places outside of these ports. Vessels are subject to moderate wharfage charges for dockage, and merchandise placed in warehouse

to charges for storage. Warehouse receipts are issued to facilitate the transfer or hypothecation of such merchandise.

THE FREE PORTS AND DOCKS OF HAMBURG.

These extend over a large area, and the commerce served by them employs annually 8,000 ocean vessels, 6,000 of them being steamers, and more than 12,000 ships and smaller craft plying upon the Upper Elbe.

The enormous commerce of Hamburg has been developed, without doubt, to a great extent by the free-port system.

The free port of Bremen is not so extensive as that of Hamburg, but is ample for all requirements and is conducted upon the same general plan.

THE COPENHAGEN FREE PORT.

The Copenhagen free port, recently established, is situated on the northern extremity of the present harbor of Copenhagen. Its entrance from the sound is 300 feet in width and is protected by piers and breakwaters. It has more than 50 acres of water area, from 24 to 30 feet deep, surrounded by 12,000 feet of wharves or quays, with warehouses and all modern appliances for loading and unloading vessels. These wharves are also connected with railways for shipment to interior points. There is a large area of land within the inclosure and all the inclosed space is exempt from taxation. Ground in close proximity to the wharves is available at a moderate rental for the erection of manufactories and other industrial establishments. Building materials for the erection of such establishments and machinery necessary for their equipment may be imported free of duty.

The principal objects aimed at by the establishment of this free port are:

First, to facilitate and develop such transit trade as already exists in Copenhagen by reducing to a minimum all loading and discharging expenses and by removing those trammels to trade inseparably connected with the collection of duties and the interference of customs officers;

Second, to assist such industries as have a chance of thriving there to compete in neutral markets, by allowing the erection of works and the carrying on of manufactures within the limits of the free port, thereby saving all unnecessary trouble and loss of time and expense in first clearing the raw materials liable to duty, advantages likely to surpass those offered by the Danish drawback system, which, even if administered with the utmost fairness, never entirely compensates for the import duty on raw materials, since waste, breakage, etc., during manufacture are not taken into account.

Under the warehousing laws of the United States foreign merchandise imported may be placed in bonded warehouse and remain there for three years, when it must be entered for consumption or exported. If not so entered it is regarded as abandoned by the owner and is sold by the Government to pay duties and charges.

All such merchandise must, on arrival, be entered at the customhouse and bond be given in double the amount of the duties thereon. It must be examined, appraised, weighed, gauged, or measured by the proper officials, and must be under the constant surveillance of a Government storekeeper, whose compensation is reimbursed by the pro-

prietor of the warehouse, thus adding to the cost of storage. Foreign vessels bringing such merchandise are subject to a duty upon their tonnage capacity of 3 cents per ton if coming from certain foreign ports of America, and of 6 cents per ton if coming from other ports. Such duty, however, can not be collected from any vessel more than five times in any one year at these rates, and if any vessel shall become liable to both rates, not more than 30 cents per ton shall be collected in any one year. This amounts to a tax upon steamers of regular lines of $2,000 to $3,000 per annum. In addition, such vessels must pay regular entrance and clearance fees and port charges. Our warehousing laws also permit the establishment of manufacturing warehouses, into which foreign goods in bond and domestic spirits subject to internal revenue may be transferred for the purpose of manufacture and export free from duty or tax. This privilege is now limited to materials used in the manufacture of medicines, preparations, compositions, extracts, cordials and liquors, and crude metals or ores to be refined. The manufactured product can in no case be withdrawn except for export. These warehouses are also under the constant custody and oversight of customs officers, whose compensation is a charge against the proprietor.

A section of the pending tariff bill proposes to extend the privilege of manufacture in bond to all articles made in whole or in part of foreign materials, such materials to be exempt from duty or tax. This would greatly enlarge the system.

Our drawback laws encourage and promote the exportation of manufactured articles by the repayment to the exporter of the duties originally paid upon the foreign materials used in such manufactures, less 1 per cent of such duties. There is, however, involved in this drawback method, not only the trouble and expense incident to the original entry of the materials for manufacture and the loss of interest on the duties paid, but the entry for export with benefit of drawback is attended with much detail and expense, so that, taking into account the retention of 1 per cent by the Government and the costs of original entry, interest, and final entry for drawback, the net amount received by the exporter falls considerably short of the duties paid on the imported materials used.

The advantages of the European free-port system over our warehouse and drawback methods may be summed up as follows:

First. The exemption of importing vessels from all fees, tonnage dues, and port charges.

Second. The absolute freedom of exchange of commodities within the limits of the free port by the exemption of all merchandise imported therein from duties or tax of any kind and the saving of brokers' charges, as well as the trouble and annoyance of making entry at the custom-house.

Third. Reduction of expenses for wharfage, storage, and labor by means of improved facilities of loading and unloading vessels and handling merchandise, all such costs being reduced to a minimum.

Fourth. Under the Copenhagen plan the privilege of erecting factories within the limits of the free port upon land granted at a nominal rental, building materials to be admitted free, including equipment machinery, the product of such factories made of materials thus exempt from duty to be exported, or if entered for consumption to pay duty at the rates prescribed for such manufactured articles.

APRIL 16, 1894.

[The Omaha Bee, editorial department. E. Rosewater, editor.]

OMAHA, *April 23, 1894.*

MY DEAR SENATOR: Responding to your inquiry about free ports and my views as to the feasibility of establishing such ports at several of our seaboard cities, I herewith submit a summary of my observations abroad and conclusions reached therefrom.

While sojourning a few days at Hamburg during the summer of 1891 my attention was called to the phenomenal growth of that city and the marked increase of traffic since the establishment of its free harbor. Availing myself of the assistance of the U. S. consul, I made a thorough inspection of the docks, depots, warehouses, and elevators which constitute what might be called an international clearing-house.

As you are doubtless aware Hamburg had been a free city until 1881, ten years after its annexation to the German empire after the Franco-Prussian war. The commerce of Hamburg being for the most part international, any attempt to make it a customs port seriously interfered with the handling and rehandling of commodities and products that were to be reshipped to all parts of the world from Hamburg. To overcome these obstacles to free commercial exchange, a tract of land with an area of nearly 4,000 acres adjacent to the river Elbe was set apart for a free harbor. The city of Hamburg expended 80,000,000 marks and the German Government donated 40,000,000 marks for deepening the channel of the Elbe and the construction of the canals that created several artificial islands, upon which international commerce is conducted without customs interference. Within the area surrounded by the river and canals colossal warehouses and elevators have been erected by a syndicate of Hamburg capitalists upon the condition of their reversion to the city of Hamburg at the end of twenty-five years from their completion in 1888. The magnificent quay, extending over 7 miles, forms the most important part of the harbor. There are in all eleven separate harbors in the free port district, including the petroleum harbor, where the Standard Oil Company of this country has extensive warehouses and oil tanks. There are also shipyards in which sailing vessels and steamships are constructed and fitted out.

The following facts as to the establishment of the Hamburg free harbor suffice to show the benefits derived therefrom: Within five years after its establishment the population of Hamburg had increased over 200,000; during the year ending July 1, 1891, more than 16,000 vessels, including 6,000 steamships, passed in and out of Hamburg. These steamers hailed from every country on the globe. I was informed, for instance, that the bulk of all Brazilian coffee destined for the United States is first shipped to Hamburg and then rehandled in the free harbor. The bulk of all the African colonial products destined for Europe and America is redistributed by the commission houses of Hamburg.

Of course all commodities and products destined for Germany or the city of Hamburg proper are subject to customs duty the same as if they were unloaded at any other German port.

The merchants engaged in international traffic upon the free harbor assured me that the margin upon which they do business is so small that it would be impossible to maintain this traffic in competition with Great Britain and other countries if they were hampered by customs inspection and even the most trivial customs charge. The charge for storage and commission is very low, but owing to the enormous bulk of business done it has been found to be profitable.

It goes without saying that all persons employed at the free harbor reside in the city of Hamburg proper and therefore are part of its population.

So forcibly was I impressed with this free port that upon my return to America in the fall of 1891 I brought with me plans of the Hamburg harbor and the buildings in it. These were presented to Secretary Foster, who expressed himself as decidedly in favor of the establishment of free ports in America.

Incidently, it would seem to me both practical and desirable to extend the privilege of manufacturing within the domain of the free harbor from raw materials imported into the country and exporting the goods there manufactured to foreign countries. Such a policy would enable us to give employment to our own workmen and compete with the free-trade countries by supplying the markets of the world with articles of American manufacture.

Yours, very respectfully,

E. ROSEWATER.

Hon. WM. E. CHANDLER,
U. S. Senator, Washington, D. C.

FORT POND BAY.

Fort Pond Bay is a deep harbor on the north side of Long Island, about 6 miles from Montauk Point, which is the easterly extremity of the island. It is 125 miles from New York City, and in case it is a free port it will be reached by land by the Long Island Railroad, which now extends to within a short distance from the bay. The bay measures about 1 square mile, and is well sheltered from storms, being open only from the northeast round to the northwest. Its shores are composed of coarse sand and gravel, and the bottom of the bay has about 3 feet of mud overlying hard sand. It can be reached from the ocean by the channel between Montauk Point and Block Island, which is 14 miles wide with a maximum depth of 14 fathoms. It may also be reached by the channel between Block Island and Point Judith, Rhode Island, which is 10 miles in width and has a maximum depth of 22 fathoms.

The surveys of Fort Pond Bay by the U. S. Government are described in the annual reports of the Chief of Engineers of the Army for 1888, part 1, pp. 733–741, and for 1893, part 1, pp. 1077–1082, and the account for the latter year is also printed as House Ex. Doc. No. 110, of the Fifty-second Congress, second session.

The merits of Fort Pond Bay have been hitherto put forward in connection with a special project for a line of fast transatlantic steamers from Montauk Point to Milford Haven, England; but the scheme has been opposed by the existing steamship companies, who prefer to deliver all their passengers and freight at New York City. Under these conditions the engineers have not advised the improvement of the harbor at Government expense.

The present plan for a free port at Fort Pond Bay is advocated not in the interest of any new line of fast steamers, but with a view to affording its facilities to all the existing steamship lines, and to foreign and domestic vessels of all kinds; and to give to the State of New York and the whole country the great advantages of many kinds to be derived from the establishment of a free port.

A BILL authorizing the establishment of a free port at Fort Pond Bay or elsewhere in the waters of Long Island, in the State of New York.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That Austin Corbin, Charles M. Pratt, Watson B. Dickerman, George S. Edgell, and their associates, either as partnership proprietors or organized as a corporation under the laws of the State of New York, are hereby authorized to establish and maintain, upon the conditions hereinafter imposed, a free port at Fort Pond Bay or elsewhere in the waters of Long Island, in the State of New York, provided the location shall be approved as suitable by the Secretary of the Treasury.

SEC. 2. The proprietors aforesaid shall proceed to acquire lands bordering upon the waters constituting the free port which may be selected, and shall erect piers and warehouses sufficient for the purposes of such port and shall surround them by walls within which the loading and unloading of vessels may take place; all in accordance with plans and specifications to be first approved by the Secretary of the Treasury and to be completed under his supervision; and when said port with its piers, warehouses, and all other suitable facilities shall have been so completed said Secretary shall announce its completion, and said port shall then be open for the admission of all vessels in accordance with the general laws of the United States, except as modified by the provisions of this act.

SEC. 3. The free port, when established as aforesaid and opened for the admission of vessels, shall be subject as a whole or in suitable subdivisions to be treated as a part of the warehouse system of the United States, and suitable bonds for the proper management of said port or said subdivisions thereof shall be given by the proprietors as now required by law in the case of a bonded warehouse.

SEC. 4. Foreign merchandise may be transshipped from one vessel to another in said port and upon the piers thereof upon being suitably inspected without being entered or specially bonded; or the same may be entered for immediate admission into this country, or the same may be warehoused and bonded and afterwards exported or entered for consumption, as provided by existing law. Factories may be maintained within the walls of said free port, and machinery, fuel, and materials may be brought and used therein for the manufacture of products for exportation under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe.

SEC. 5. All vessels entering and leaving said free port shall be free from tonnage dues and from entrance and clearance fees; and also from any local harbormaster's fees under State laws, but all charges for dockage and for the use for merchandise of piers and warehouses and for all the other facilities afforded to commerce by the proprietors of said free port shall be regulated and controlled by the Secretary of the Treasury.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 171.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 7, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. ALLEN submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Whereas Jacob S. Coxey, a citizen of the State of Ohio, Carl Browne, a citizen of the State of California, and C. C. Jones, a citizen of the State of Pennsylvania, and all citizens of the United States of America, were, on the first day of May, eighteen hundred and ninety-four, on the grounds of the National Capitol, at the city of Washington, in the District of Columbia, assaulted by a police force in the service of the United States of America, and arrested and imprisoned while peaceably entering upon said Capitol grounds in a quiet and orderly manner to join others then on said grounds by lawful right: Therefore,

Resolved, That a special committee of five Senators shall be appointed by the President of the Senate, no more than two of whom shall belong to the same political party, whose duty it shall be to investigate and report, with all convenient speed, to the Senate, all the facts and circumstances connected with such arrest and imprisonment, with such recommendation in the premises, by bill or otherwise, as may be necessary to prevent a repetition of such outrages on the rights of American citizens hereafter.

Said committee shall have full power to send for persons and papers, summon, swear, and examine witnesses, preserve and report all evidence, perform and do all things in the premises such as may be essential to a full, complete, and thorough investigation of the matter, the expenses of which investigation and report shall be paid out of the contingent fund of the Senate.

O

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 9, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. TELLER submitted the following

AMENDMENT

To the resolution submitted by Mr. Allen for the investigation into the circumstances attending the arrest of Jacob S. Coxey and others, viz:

Strike out the preamble and all after the word "resolved," and insert:

That a special committee of five Senators shall be appointed by the President of the Senate, no more than two of whom shall belong to the same political party, whose duty it shall be to investigate and report, with all convenient speed, to the Senate, all the facts and circumstances connected with the arrest and imprisonment of Jacob S. Coxey, Carl Browne, and C. C. Jones, and the general conduct of the police on the day such arrests were made, and to report whether any further legislation is necessary for the protection of the Capitol and grounds about the Capitol; also, whether further legislation is necessary or desirable for the protection of the citizens who may visit the National Capitol.

Said committee shall have full power to send for persons and papers, summon, swear, and examine witnesses, preserve and report all evidence, perform and do all things in the premises such as may be essential to a full, complete, and thorough investigation of the matter.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 172.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 8, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on the Library and ordered to be printed.

Mr. GORMAN presented the following

PETITION OF THE NATIONAL CONGRESS OF THE SONS OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION, HELD IN WASHINGTON, D. C., ON APRIL 30, 1894, RESPECTFULLY PETITIONING CONGRESS FOR THE PASSAGE OF THE BILL TO AID IN THE ERECTION OF A MONUMENT TO THE MARYLAND HEROES OF THE REVOLUTIONARY WAR.

THE NATIONAL CONGRESS
OF THE SONS OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION,
Washington, D. C., April 30, 1894.

PETITION.

The Senate and House of Representatives of the United States, Washington City, D. C.:

Whereas this National Congress, composed of delegates from thirty State organizations of the Society of the Sons of the American Revolution, a society the membership of which is composed of the *lineal descendants* of the heroes and patriots of the Revolutionary war, bound together for *patriotic* purposes, did at its annual meeting, held in the City Hall, New York, April 30, 1892, petition "The honorable the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States" (a copy of which is herewith filed) and set forth therein the great gallantry of the Maryland troops of the Revolutionary Army; and

Whereas the said petition further cites that the Maryland Society of the Sons of the American Revolution, an incorporated body under the laws of the State, is engaged in the erection of an appropriate Revolutionary monument in the city of Baltimore, which is to be, when erected, inscribed "to all Maryland patriots of the Revolutionary war"; and

Whereas the said petition not only indorsed the said Maryland Revolutionary monument, but did petition your honorable bodies that the sum of $40,000 be appropriated to aid in the erection of the same; and

Whereas the said petition was presented in the Senate of the United States on Friday, May 6, 1892, by the Hon. Arthur P. Gorman, of Maryland, read and referred to the Committee on the Library; and

Whereas at this present session of your honorable bodies on March 20, 1894, the Hon. Arthur P. Gorman introduced in the Senate a bill

"to aid in the erection of a monument to the Maryland heroes of the Revolutionary war; and

Whereas the State of Maryland and the city of Baltimore have made appropriations to the said monument, and the said city has by ordinance granted free of all cost to the said Maryland society a public square of great beauty as a site, and as from private subscriptions received there is no doubt of the ability of the said Maryland society to raise all the balance of the sum of money required to erect such a monument as will be an honor to the country and a fit commemoration of a great cause and its heroes, provided you grant the appropriation asked for: Therefore, be it

Resolved, That this national congress of the Sons of the American Revolution most respectfully petitions your honorable bodies that said bill introduced by the Hon. Arthur P. Gorman be passed, that the work of the erection of the said monument may be begun.

HORACE PORTER,
President General.
FRANKLIN MURPHY,
Secretary General.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 173.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 9, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Agriculture and Forestry and ordered to be printed.

Mr. MANDERSON presented the following

STATEMENT RELATIVE TO LICENSE TAX ON DEALERS IN OLEOMARGARINE.

The effect of these amendments to the act of Congress to section 3 is to reduce by one-half the cost of licenses to deal in oleomargarine.

There are now 283 wholesale dealers and 6,369 retail dealers' licenses to deal in oleomargarine, for which the sum of $354,058 (for the year ending June 30, 1893) has been paid. This amount is too great by one-half, or more than enough to pay the expenses of the Internal Revenue Department in collecting the tax of 2 cents per pound upon oleomargarine, the object of license tax upon wholesale and retail dealers being to defray the expenses of collecting the revenue tax and supervision of dealers in oleomargarine.

The effect of the amendment to section 6 is to permit the use of tin as well as wooden and paper packages, it being desirable in domestic shipments to some parts of the United States, and necessary in export shipments, to prevent soakage and deterioration, which sometimes affects shipments in wooden packages.

(1) The effect of the amendment to section 6, first line, is to except from the operation of section 6 oleomargarine intended for export.

(2) The effect of the amendment to section 6, line 3, is that the manufacturer may put up in a stamped package not less than 1 pound of oleomargarine instead of 10 pounds, which is now the minimum weight package which a manufacturer may pack.

The object of this amendment is to provide the retailer with an original package to sell, properly marked and branded; and as the retailer will be restrained from selling any oleomargarine in any quantity except in the manufacturers' original package, it is necessary that he should be provided with a package as small as 1 pound. The restriction as to the minimum amount a wholesale dealer may sell, and the maximum amount a retail dealer may sell, that exists in the present bill is not changed by this amendment.

Under the provision of this amendment, no oleomargarine can be sold by any licensed dealer, wholesale or retail, except in the original stamped package, thus invariably advising all buyers of the fact that they are buying oleomargarine, and also of the name of the party manufacturing the same, it being expected that the regulation will require the original package to be stamped with the word "oleomargarine," and also the factory, number, and name of the manufacturer.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 174.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 10, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. PEFFER submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That a select committee of three Senators be appointed by the Vice-President, whose duty it shall be to consider the present condition of the country with special reference to the prevailing business depression and the large number of unemployed people, and report as soon as practicable what legislation, if any, within the jurisdiction of Congress, is necessary to afford relief.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 175.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 11, 1894.—Referred to the Committee to Audit and Control the Contingent Expenses of the Senate and ordered to be printed.

Mr. PEFFER presented the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved by the Senate (the House concurring therein), That a select joint committee be raised, consisting of three Senators, appointed by the Vice-President, and four members of the House of Representatives, appointed by the Speaker, whose duty it shall be to investigate all the facts and circumstances connected with the alleged fraudulent manufacture of defective and inferior armor plates, bolts, and other articles of iron and steel at any time within five years last past contracted to be made and delivered to the proper officers of the United States by Andrew Carnegie and other persons associated with him in the business of manufacturing iron and steel.

The committee, immediately upon its appointment, will meet and organize in the manner usual in such cases; it shall have power to administer oaths to witnesses, to send for persons and papers, and may, by subcommittee or otherwise, visit any place or places deemed necessary to a full, thorough, and complete investigation of the said charges and any facts and circumstances materially connected therewith, and report in detail to their respective Houses at as early a day as practicable.

The said joint committee may sit during the present session of Congress and during the coming vacation; it may appoint a clerk, a stenographer, and messenger, and the necessary expenses of the committee will be paid in equal proportions out of the contingent funds of the two Houses.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 176.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 12, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on the Judiciary and ordered to be printed.

Mr. SHERMAN presented the following

RESOLUTIONS OF THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE AND MERCHANTS' EXCHANGE, OF CINCINNATI, OHIO, IN FAVOR OF THE TORREY BANKRUPTCY BILL.

CINCINNATI, *April 30, 1894.*

The Cincinnati Chamber of Commerce and Merchants' Exchange:

Your special committee to whom was referred certain national bankruptcy bills now pending in Congress, beg respectfully to report their conclusions concerning such bills, as follows:

The Torrey bankruptcy bill is the outgrowth of a national movement designed to secure legislation by Congress, as contemplated by the Constitution at the time of its adoption; it was adopted and promulgated by a national bankruptcy convention, composed of the representatives of the commercial bodies of the country, the first session of which was held at St. Louis and the second session at Minneapolis, in the spring and fall, respectively, of 1889. Since being promulgated it has been considered and favorably passed upon by commercial, professional, and industrial bodies in all of the States of the Union, with a unanimity that never has been accorded to any other commercial measure. It embraces the voluntary and involuntary systems of bankruptcy; that is, the debtor who is in failing circumstances, or who has failed, may voluntarily apply for the benefits of the act by making a surrender of his property, if he has any, for a pro rata distribution among his creditors of the same class; on the other hand, the creditors of a debtor who has committed some one or more of the acts of bankruptcy may proceed against him in involuntary bankruptcy, and secure a like distribution of his estate. In general terms, acts of bankruptcy consist of an inability to pay matured obligations, accompanied by insolvency; acts of dishonesty in relation to property; and an inability to protect the estate from an unfair distribution among the creditors. A discharge may be granted to voluntary and involuntary bankrupts, if they are honest, upon the same terms. The bill contains the additional provisions necessary to constitute a comprehensive plan for the prompt and economical handling of estates of those who are unable to handle them successfully; the punishment of dishonesty and the discharge of those who have become involved without fraud on their part, and who have acted honestly in their dealings with their creditors and in the handling of their property.

The Bailey bankruptcy bill was introduced in the House of Representatives by Representative Bailey, of Texas. It never has received any attention, so far as we are informed, by any of the commercial,

industrial, or professional interests of the country. It is only for voluntary bankruptcy. The creditors of insolvents have no part in the bankruptcy proceedings other than that they may be made defendants in the proceedings for a discharge. Under it all debtors may be discharged unless they have committed certain acts within three months before the passage of the bill; if the same acts were committed prior to such time, or shall be committed subsequent to its passage, they will not bar a discharge. It is not intended as a permanent law, but its duration is limited to two years from the time of its passage. If persons commit defalcations or embezzle funds held in a fiduciary capacity they can not be discharged under the bill, but corporations which do identically the same thing may be discharged.

The minority of the Judiciary Committee of the House of Representatives, in their report concerning the bill of Mr. Bailey, state that it is not constitutional; that it constitutes an experiment in bankruptcy legislation; that it is not a bankruptcy bill; that it does not apply to the whole country; that it does not grant relief to debtors who owe less than $200; that it leaves it discretionary with debtors to provide for the payment in full of the wages of servants and laborers; that it requires impossible things with reference to the assignment under State laws which must be made before jurisdiction to the U. S. courts will be conferred under it; that it permits applications for discharges to be made without limit of time or number; that it makes it possible for discharges to be improperly granted or withheld without reason; that it will permit corporations, including national banks, to be discharged; that it neither leaves the administration of the estates of insolvents to be wholly dealt with by the State insolvency laws in their diverse ways nor to a national bankruptcy law in a comprehensive way; that it requires proceedings to be had first under a State and second under a Federal law; that it requires that the costs of two courts shall be incurred; that it is calculated to destroy credit; and that it would advance the interests of dishonest debtors.

In concluding a comparison of the Torrey and Bailey bankruptcy bills the committee say:

> In our opinion the Bailey bill is wrong in principle and incomplete in its provisions; in our judgment the Torrey bill includes the good but not the bad features of prior legislation upon this subject; it is such a uniform law as the Constitution provided should be established; its enactment is demanded by the people, and we herewith submit it as a substitute for the Bailey bill with the recommendation that it do pass.

In view of all which, resolutions are submitted for consideration, as follows:

Resolved, That Congress is hereby respectfully petitioned to lend its aid to the restoration of confidence between the men who are conducting the commerce and carrying on the industries of the country by the prompt enactment of the Torrey bankruptcy bill.

Resolved, That our secretary is hereby requested to send authenticated copies of this report, resolutions, and action thereon to the Senators and Representatives in Congress from this State.

Respectfully submitted.

MICHAEL RYAN,
CHAS. B. MURRAY,
THOMAS MORRISON,
S. W. BARD,
JOHN A. KREIS,
Committee.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 177.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 12, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations and ordered to be printed.

The PRESIDENT *pro tempore* presented the following:

REPORT OF COMMITTEE OF THE ASSOCIATION OF MILITARY SURGEONS OF THE UNITED STATES ON THE PROPOSED ACT OF CONGRESS FOR THE PROTECTION OF THE INSIGNIA AND NAME OF THE RED CROSS.

ASSOCIATION MILITARY SURGEONS UNITED STATES,
Washington, D. C., May 11, 1894.

SIR: I have the honor herewith to submit a copy of "Report of committee of the Association of Military Surgeons of the United States on the proposed act of Congress for the protection of the insignia and name of the Red Cross."

This committee was appointed at the fourth annual meeting of the association, held in this city during the past week. Its report was submitted to the association and adopted unanimously—the original being now on file among the records of the association.

A reference of the inclosed copy to the Committee on Foreign Relations is respectfully requested.

I have the honor to be, sir, respectfully, your obedient servant,

GEO. M. STERNBERG,
President Association of Military Surgeons of the United States.

The PRESIDENT OF THE U. S. SENATE.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE OF THE ASSOCIATION OF MILITARY SURGEONS OF THE UNITED STATES ON PROPOSED ACT OF CONGRESS FOR THE PROTECTION OF THE INSIGNIA AND NAME OF THE RED CROSS.

Whereas in the international convention at Geneva, Switzerland, August 22, 1864, twelve nations of the world met and formulated articles of treaty for the purpose of mitigating the evils inseparable from war; of suppressing the needless severity, and particularly providing that persons employed in hospitals and affording relief to the sick and wounded, and supplies for this purpose, shall be deemed neutral and entitled to protection; and that a distinctive and uniform flag shall be adopted for hospitals and ambulances, and convoys of sick and wounded, and an arm badge for individuals neutralized; and

Whereas said treaty has been ratified by every civilized nation of the world *with one or two* exceptions of minor importance; and

Whereas the flag adopted was the distinctive sign of the Red Cross alone, under which insignia or sign the purposes of the treaty shall be carried into effect, the same being a red Greek cross on a white ground, and which shall constitute the military hospital flag of all the nations within the treaty and designate all persons serving under it; and the same is adopted and used throughout the world; and

Whereas the United States gave its adhesion by act of Congress March 1, 1882; was ratified by the International Congress of Berne June 9, 1882, and proclaimed by President Arthur July 26, 1882, thus adopting by solemn compact and treaty this universal and only military hospital flag; and as the insignia is prescribed in the United States Army Regulations they are a part of the equipment of regular armies and militia, and are incorporated in the rules of the government and regulations of the land forces; and

Whereas the unauthorized use of said insignia in all countries within the treaty becoming a source of embarrassment and serious injury, causing perplexing complications to arise, all of the nations under said treaty have taken vigorous action against this evil and have passed stringent laws, with heavy penalties, for the protection of this special insignia; and

Whereas the same great evil exists to-day in this country, the merchant prince, the manufacturing chemist, the speculator, and huckster alike seizing upon and adopting for purposes of trade and barter this greatest of humanitarian emblems, made sacred by solemn compact and the wisest of counsel; and

Whereas, the fact becoming known that this country has no laws for the protection of the Red Cross—the whiskies, drugs, pills, and nostrums of the world bearing the Red Cross on their labels are being imported; thus the laws for the protection of the sign in other countries are working us positive and fatal injury, and unless this wrong shall be righted and this Congress protect the interests of the Government the Red Cross will be brought into such contempt that its value as a relief sign will be gone and its usefulness utterly destroyed; and

Whereas the American National Red Cross—the United States branch of the International Red Cross—has, through its honored president, Miss Clara Barton, been endeavoring for five years to secure, by act of Congress, at least a measure of protection which is accorded this emblem in other countries; and

Whereas a bill "to protect the insignia and the name of the Red Cross" was introduced in the House of Representatives this session, and on the 23d of March passed unanimously without alteration or amendment, referred to the Senate, read twice, and referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations; And, therefore, be it

Resolved, That we, the Association of Military Surgeons of the United States in congress assembled, do earnestly recommend the bill now before the Committee on Foreign Relations for the protection of the insignia and name of the Red Cross and urge its immediate passage.

Respectfully submitted.

ALBERT L. GIHON,
Medical Director U. S. Navy, Chairman.
LEONARD B. ALMY,
Lieut. Col. and Medical Director Conn. N. G.
CHARLES SMART,
Major and Surgeon, *U. S. Army*

O

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 15, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. ALLEN submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Secretary of the Treasury be, and he is herel directed to inform the Senate of the total number of persons engag in protected industries in the United States whose wages are, or m be claimed to be, affected by tariff legislation; the total number persons engaged in such industries whose wages are not, or will n be affected by tariff legislation, and the proportion of the populati of the United States who depend upon the foreign market for the s of their products, classifying such industries respectively; such inf mation to be based on the census of eighteen hundred and nine Also, that the Secretary of the Treasury be, and he is hereby, direct and required to inform the Senate of the total number of such perso who are native-born citizens of the United States of America, the to number who are naturalized citizens, and the total number of su persons who are aliens; and at what ratio, if any, alien mechanics a laborers have been taking the place of native and naturalized citize of the United States in the protected industries of the United State

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 180.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 16, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. LODGE submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Whereas it has been stated in The Sun, a newspaper published in New York, that bribes have been offered to certain Senators to induce them to vote against the pending tariff bill; and

Whereas it has also been stated in a signed article in The Press, a newspaper published in Philadelphia, that the sugar schedule has been made up as it now stands in the proposed amendment in consideration of large sums of money paid for campaign purposes of the Democratic party: Therefore,

Resolved, That a committee of five Senators be appointed to investigate these charges and with power to send for persons and papers.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 181.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 16, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on the District of Columbia and ordered to be printed.

The VICE-PRESIDENT presented the following

LETTER FROM THE COMMISSIONERS OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA RELATIVE TO THE EQUIPMENT OF STREET RAILWAY CARS WITH THE BEST AVAILABLE FENDERS.

OFFICE COMMISSIONERS DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA,
Washington, May 15, 1894.

SIR: The Commissioners of the District of Columbia have received a copy of the following resolution of the Senate, dated the 11th instant:

Resolved, That the Commissioners of the District of Columbia be directed to communicate to the Senate, without unnecessary delay, whether in their opinion and judgment the street railways of the District of Columbia, propelled by cable and electric power, should not be required to immediately equip their cars with the best available fender, with a view to the protection of human life and limb on the public streets and avenues.

The Commissioners have the honor to report that in their opinion the street railway companies operating such lines in the District of Columbia should be required to equip the cars on said lines without unnecessary or unreasonable delay with the best available fenders which shall be satisfactory to the Commissioners, in order to afford the greatest practicable protection to life and limb on the public streets. A comprehensive report on the subject of car fenders and safety appliances on street cars, with recommendations relative to their adoption upon the street cars in use in this District, has been prepared by the Commissioners and transmitted by them to-day to the chairman of the Senate Committee on the District of Columbia.

Very respectfully,

JOHN W. ROSS,
President, Board of Commissioners, District of Columbia.

Hon. A. E. STEVENSON,
President of the U. S. Senate.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 182.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 17, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. MORGAN submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Whereas on the second day of June, eighteen hundred and ninety, the following statute was enacted by Congress:

AN ACT to protect trade and commerce against unlawful restraints and monopolies.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, Every contract, combination in the form of trust or otherwise, or conspiracy, in restraint of trade or commerce among the several States, or with foreign nations, is hereby declared to be illegal. Every person who shall make any such contract or engage in any such combination or conspiracy, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and, on conviction thereof, shall be punished by fine not exceeding five thousand dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding one year, or by both said punishments, in the discretion of the court.

SEC. 2. Every person who shall monopolize, or attempt to monopolize, or combine or conspire with any other person or persons, to monopolize any part of the trade or commerce among the several States, or with foreign nations, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and, on conviction thereof, shall be punished by fine not exceeding five thousand dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding one year, or by both said punishments, in the discretion of the court.

SEC. 3. Every contract, combination in form of trust or otherwise, or conspiracy, in restraint of trade or commerce in any Territory of the United States or the District of Columbia, or in restraint of trade or commerce between any such Territory and another, or between any such Territory or Territories and any State or States or the District of Columbia, or with foreign nations, or between the District of Columbia and any State or States or foreign nations, is hereby declared illegal. Every person who shall make any such contract or engage in any such combination or conspiracy, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and, on conviction thereof, shall be punished by fine not exceeding five thousand dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding one year, or by both said punishments, in the discretion of the court.

SEC. 4. The several circuit courts of the United States are hereby invested with jurisdiction to prevent and restrain violations of this Act; and it shall be the duty of the several district attorneys of the United States, in their respective districts, under the direction of the Attorney-General, to institute proceedings in equity to prevent and restrain such violations. Such proceedings may be by way of petitions setting forth the case and praying that such violations shall be enjoined or otherwise prohibited. When the parties complained of shall have been duly notified of such petition the court shall proceed, as soon as may be, to the hearing and determination of the case; and pending such petition and before final decree, the court may at any time make such temporary restraining order or prohibition as shall be deemed just in the premises.

SEC. 5. Whenever it shall appear to the court before which any proceeding under section four of this Act may be pending, that the ends of justice require that other parties should be brought before the court, the court may cause them to be summoned, whether they reside in the district in which the court is held or not; and subpœnas to that end may be served in any district by the marshal thereof.

SEC. 6. Any property owned under any contract or by any combination, or pursuant to any conspiracy (and being the subject thereof) mentioned in section one of this Act, and being in the course of transportation from one State to another, or to a foreign country, shall be forfeited to the United States, and may be seized and condemned *by like proceedings as those* provided by law for the forfeiture, seizure, and *condemnation of property* imported into the United States contrary to law.

SEC. 7. Any person who shall be injured in his business or property by any other person or corporation by reason of anything forbidden or declared to be unlawful by this Act, may sue therefor in any circuit court of the United States in the district in which the defendant resides or is found, without respect to the amount in controversy, and shall recover threefold the damages by him sustained, and the costs of suit, including a reasonable attorney's fee.

SEC. 8. That the word "person," or "persons," wherever used in this Act shall be deemed to include corporations and associations existing under or authorized by the laws of either the United States, the laws of any of the Territories, the laws of any State, or the laws of any foreign country.

Approved, July 2, 1890.

And whereas it is alleged that a combination exists in the nature of a monopoly and in restraint of trade in the business of refining sugar, and is injuriously affecting the interests of the people in all inhabited parts of the United States, that is known as the sugar trust: Therefore,

Resolved, That the Attorney-General is directed to inform the Senate whether any action has been taken in any court of the United States, either civil or criminal, to restrain or punish the persons engaged in such violation of law. And that he inform the Senate of the results of said proceedings, if any have been instituted, and whether there is in the said statute any defect that tends to embarrass its due execution.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 183.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 17, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Privileges and Elections and ordered to be printed.

Mr. TELLER presented the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Secretary of the Senate be, and he is hereby, authorized and directed to pay William P. Kellogg, late Senator from the State of Louisiana, the sum of six thousand five hundred and forty-three dollars and thirty-eight cents, his salary as such Senator from the fourth of March, eighteen hundred and sixty-seven, until June twenty-fourth, eighteen hundred and sixty-eight. The said payment to be made from the miscellaneous items of the contingent fund of the Senate.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 184.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 17, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Pacific Railroads and ordered to be printed.

Mr. TELLER presented the following:

MEMORIAL FROM JOHN EVANS, RELATIVE TO THE CONSOLIDATION OF THE UNION PACIFIC RAILROAD WITH OTHER LINES.

To the honorable the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States in Congress assembled:

The memorial of John Evans, a citizen of the United States and the State of Colorado, respectfully represents:

That the attention of your memorialist has been attracted to a letter of the Hon. Richard Olney, Attorney-General of the United States, directed to the Speaker of the House of Representatives (Ex. Doc. No. 203), to which is subjoined the draft of a bill proposed by the Attorney-General for the reorganization of the Union Pacific Railway Company, in the fifth section of which it is provided that the reorganized company shall have power "to acquire any railroad or property of any company connected with its system, or any interest therein, and to maintain and operate any railroad so acquired."

When taken in connection with the report of the Hon. George Hoadley, Special Assistant Attorney-General, communicated by the Attorney-General to the House of Representatives in his letter of April 11, 1894 (Ex. Doc. No. 194), it is manifest that the section referred to in the proposed enactment has a purpose which may not be apparent to your honorable body without explanation.

To call attention to some of the evil effects of the proposed legislation is the purpose of this memorial.

Up to the early months of the year 1888 the States and Territories of the Rocky Mountain region were in communication with tide water only by means of the Union Pacific Railway, and other railways similarly situated, extending from Omaha, and other points on the Missouri River, in substantially an east and west direction, and connecting at their Eastern termini with railways extending to New York, Boston, Philadelphia, and other cities of the Eastern Atlantic coast. It resulted that upon all merchandise imported from foreign countries, and all merchandise produced upon the Atlantic coast, the people of the Rocky Mountain region were required to pay, in addition to the original cost thereof and the profits of middlemen, an immense charge for railway transportation across the 2,000 miles of country intervening between the coast and Denver.

In the year 1880 a corporation was organized in Colorado for the purpose of constructing a railway from Denver to tide-water points

upon the Mexican gulf. Inasmuch as Denver is substantially the same distance from Galveston and New Orleans as from Chicago, it was believed by those interested in this project that the proposed railway, when completed, would be of great advantage to the people of Colorado, Wyoming, Utah, New Mexico, Texas, and Louisiana, and be able to compete advantageously with the east and west roads for the traffic of the Rocky Mountain region, originating in all Atlantic Ocean or gulf ports, or upon or in the immediate vicinity of the Atlantic coast, or destined for such ports.

From the beginning the new project met with nothing but hostility from the companies operating the east and west line of railway, with which it was destined to compete, and it was not until the spring of the year 1888, after many adversities, that it was finally completed to a connection with the systems of railways of the States of Texas and Louisiana, and through this connection to Atlantic tide-water points.

The result of the completion of the road was to at once reduce rates upon all imports and exports of the Rocky Mountain region and to wonderfully stimulate the development of all that portion of the country. The effect of this competition was sensibly felt by the companies operating the east and west lines, among others by the Union Pacific Company.

Late in the year 1889 the Union Pacific Railroad Company, with a secret purpose to suppress this competition, proposed, through its president, Mr. Charles Francis Adams, and through Gen. Grenville M. Dodge, then a member of its executive committee and also then president of the Denver, Texas and Gulf Railway Company, which controlled and operated the new line, to consolidate the properties of the new company with certain lines of railway then under the control of the Union Pacific Railway Company. One of the inducements offered for this consolidation was financial aid by the guaranty by the Union Pacific Company of the payment of all the interest coupons on the bonds of the consolidated company as they should mature.

This consolidation was accomplished and took practical effect on the 1st day of January, 1890, the new company being known as the Union Pacific, Denver and Gulf Railway Company, and becoming by the consolidation possessed of the railroad before that constructed as hereinbefore mentioned, extending from Denver, Colo., to Texline, on the western boundary of the State of Texas, and controlling, by reason of the ownership of a majority of the stock thereof, the railroad of the Fort Worth and Denver City Railway, extending from Texline, above mentioned, to Fort Worth, in the State of Texas.

This consolidation was stoutly resisted and prevented by your memorialist and other directors and stockholders of the new company not interested in the Union Pacific Company, until a preliminary agreement was executed by the president of the Union Pacific Railway Company on its part, and by the president of the Denver, Texas and Fort Worth Company on the part of the proposed new corporation, in which, among other things, it was expressly provided that the Union Pacific, Denver and Gulf Railway Company should at all times be operated in its own interest, and as an independent corporation, from headquarters at the city of Denver, and this preliminary agreement was, after the consolidation had taken effect, formally ratified and executed by both companies.

It will be seen by the foregoing that before the proposed consolidation the Denver, Texas and Fort Worth Railroad was a direct competitor with the Union Pacific Railway for transcontinental business, and by

a provision of the constitution of the State of Colorado (art. 15, sec. 5), in these words, "No railroad corporation, or the lessees or managers thereof, shall consolidate its stock, properties, or franchises with any other corporation owning or having under its control a parallel or competing line," was prohibited from consolidating its properties or the ownership or management thereof with those of the Union Pacific Company, so that the independency of the new corporation was assured, not only by the express covenants of the Union Pacific Railway Company, but by constitutional prohibition. In spite, however, of the constitutional prohibition, and the guarantee contained in the agreement, the Union Pacific Company, having, by virtue of the consolidation, come into the control of the majority of the stock of the new corporation, forthwith caused to be appointed to the management of the consolidated company its own officials, and in a few months thereafter removed its offices away from the State of Colorado, consolidating them with the offices of the Union Pacific Company at Omaha, Nebr., and at Boston, Mass., and from that time until the appointment of an independent receiver for the properties of the consolidated company, as hereinafter mentioned, the properties were managed as one, and as though the railway of the Union Pacific, Denver and Gulf Railway Company belonged exclusively to the Union Pacific Company, and the road organized to compete with the East and West railways was withdrawn from the field of competition to the great injury of the country it was built to serve, and to the injury of those of its stockholders who were not more largely interested in the Union Pacific Railway Company.

In August, 1893, your memorialist, having an interest of something more than 5,000 shares in the stock of the consolidated company, and large local interests in Colorado, instituted a suit in one of the State courts of the State of Colorado for the behalf of himself and all other shareholders in the consolidated company to obtain relief against this unlawful management of the property. The suit was afterward removed into the circuit court of the United States for the district of Colorado, and on the 12th day of December, 1893, an order was made in that court by which a receiver was appointed for the properties of the Union Pacific, Denver and Gulf Company, notwithstanding the vigorous opposition of the receivers of the Union Pacific Railroad Company, assisted by the special attorney of the United States. While the above-mentioned suit was pending, the Union Pacific Company had become insolvent, and its properties, with those of all its associated companies, including those of the Union Pacific, Denver and Gulf Railway Company, had passed into the hands of receivers appointed by the circuit court of the United States for the district of Nebraska, nominated, as your memorialist believes, by the Union Pacific Railway Company itself or its managers, one of the three receivers so originally appointed being then president of the said Union Pacific Railway Company and another the comptroller of that company, and the same persons who had for many months before that unlawfully controlled the properties of the said Union Pacific, Denver and Gulf Railway Company.

The effect of the appointment of an independent receiver in the suit in which your memorialist was plaintiff was to liberate the properties of the Union Pacific, Denver and Gulf Company from the unlawful control so exercised before that, and to restore it to the field of competition.

It is manifest from the communications of the Attorney-General, which have been before referred to, that one of the purposes of the legislation so proposed to your honorable body is to defeat the rights of

your memorialist, set forth and attempted to be asserted in the aforementioned suit, and to enable the Union Pacific Railway Company, by authority of Congress, to possess itself of the properties of the Union Pacific, Denver and Gulf Railway Company, again unite it with its system, absorb it into its control, and destroy its effect as a competitor with other railways between the East and West.

Inasmuch as the Union Pacific, Denver and Gulf Railway Company is not indebted to the United States, the first result above adverted to, proposed to be obtained, would be equivalent to the confiscation of private property; the second purpose contemplated by the proposed legislation is one of vast moment to the whole West. It would be a violation of the constitution of the State under which the Union Pacific, Denver and Gulf road is incorporated and the sport of interstate legislation.

The Union Pacific Railway proper extends only from the city of Council Bluffs, in the State of Iowa, to Ogden, in the Territory of Utah, a distance of something over 1,000 miles, but by means of leases, consolidations, ancillary companies, the stock of which is controlled by it or in its interest, it was operating, next previous to the catastrophe from which legislative relief is now sought, lines of railway amounting to over 8,000 miles in length, spread over the States of Nebraska, Kansas, Colorado, Oregon, Washington, Montana, Idaho, Texas, and the Territories of Utah and New Mexico.

These railways enabled their consolidated management to exercise large control over the vast business of these States and Territories, and in the case of the Union Pacific, Denver and Gulf road they subordinated the interests of its stockholders, as well as of whole States and Territories, to those of the main line of the Union Pacific Railway Company.

The power for good of such an organization is immense, but its power for evil is also immense, and if, condoning its defaults in the past, the Government of the United States shall now come to its aid and add to its already enormous corporate powers the apparent authority to purchase or to procure control of the properties of other corporations without discrimination its capability to do mischief will be beyond exaggeration.

The proposed legislation is not only opposed to the fundamental law of the State of Colorado, the covenants by which the Union Pacific acquired its holding in this company, but it is opposed to a rule of public policy which the courts have repeatedly declared. To quote the expressions of the supreme court of the State of Illinois, in the case of The People *v.* Chicago Company (130 Ill., 293):

> Whatever tends to prevent competition between those engaged in public employment is opposed to public policy, and therefore unlawful.

To quote again the language of the supreme court of the State of Georgia, in the case of The Central Railway Company *v.* Collins (40 Geo. Rep., 582):

> All experience shows that large accumulations of property in hands likely to keep it intact for a long period are dangerous to the public weal. Having perpetual succession any kind of a corporation has peculiar facilities for such an accumulation, and most governments have found it necessary to exercise great caution in their grants of corporate powers. Freed as such bodies are from the sure bound of the schemes of individuals—the grave—they are able to add field to field and power to power until they become entirely too strong for that society which is made up of those whose plans are limited by a single life.

Expressions of similar import may, I am advised, be found scattered through the judicial reports from the very earliest times, and in our

own times experience has shown it to be necessary in many States to prohibit by fundamental law the consolidation of competing lines of railway and telegraph and other like corporations formed for the service of the public.

Even if it should be supposed that the Congress of the United States has authority to override by its enactments the fundamental law of the State of Colorado, and to permit a corporation which owes its being to the authority of the State of Colorado to be consolidated with a competing corporation in defiance of such fundamental law, your memorialist respectfully submits that such power ought not to be exercised, and especially not in favor of the Union Pacific Railway Company. That corporation, the main line of which was built with the moneys of the Government of the United States at a great profit to those concerned in the construction and upon which moneys it is now unable to pay even the interest already accrued, controls and will control properties which, independent of the Union Pacific, Denver and Gulf Railway, will amount to over 6,000 miles of road. employing a vast army of officers and servants and serving or oppressing 9 States and Territories.

The new powers proposed to be conferred by the additional legislation recommended by the Attorney-General will, if their validity be established, have the effect, and undoubtedly are intended to have the effect to enable this corporation to add to its already vast system the properties of the Union Pacific, Denver and Gulf Railway Company, in the continued independency of which alone the people of the Northwest can hope for a salutary and efficient competition.

The Union Pacific Railway Company obtained large holdings of bonds in the Union Pacific, Denver and Gulf Railway Company through the consolidation above referred to, in consideration of its guarantee of the interest on all of said Gulf Company's bonds, and refusing to pay the consideration it has defaulted in the payment of this interest. The proposed legislation will enable the Union Pacific Railway Company to take advantage of its own default and foreclose the bonds thus obtained of the Union Pacific, Denver and Gulf Railway Company, cut off its stock, and assume complete control and management of its property under the pretex of a desire to add that property to the security which the Government is to hold for Union Pacific indebtedness.

Your memorialist therefore respectfully protests against the passage of the bill proposed by the Attorney-General, and especially against the power proposed to be conferred by the fifth section thereof upon the reorganized company, "to acquire any railroad or property of any company connected with its system or any interest therein and to maintain and operate any railroad so acquired," and against any legislation empowering such violation of public policy and such injustice as above pointed out.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

JOHN EVANS.

DENVER, COLO., *May 10, 1894.*

At a meeting of the Denver Chamber of Commerce and Board of Trade held May 10, 1894, the accompanying protest of ex-Governor Evans was read, and on motion the following action was had:

Resolved, The memorial of the Hon. John Evans to the Congress of the United States *in opposition to the* proposed legislation to enlarge the powers of the Union

Pacific Railway Company, which memorial has this day been read before the board, is hereby cordially indorsed by the board of the Denver Chamber of Commerce; and the delegation in Congress of this State are respectfully requested to lend their best efforts to defeat the legislation proposed and all similar legislation.

Adopted unanimously and ordered to be certified.

E. B. LIGHT,
Secretary.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 185.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 17, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. HARRIS presented the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That on and after Monday, the twenty-first day of May, eighteen hundred and ninety-four, and until otherwise ordered, the daily sessions of the Senate shall begin at ten o'clock antemeridian, and the morning hour shall terminate at the expiration of thirty minutes thereafter.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 186.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 23, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. KYLE submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That it be the sense of the Senate that the Government of the United States shall not use force for the purpose of restoring to the throne the deposed Queen of the Sandwich Islands, or for the purpose of destroying the existing Government; that the Provisional Government having been duly recognized, the highest international interests require that it shall pursue its own line of polity; that intervention in the political affairs of these islands by other governments will be regarded as an act unfriendly to the Government of the United States.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. 186, Part 2.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 23, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

MAY 25, 1894.—Modified and ordered to be printed.

Mr. KYLE submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That it is the sense of the Senate that the Government of the United States will not attempt to restore to the throne the deposed Queen of the Sandwich Islands; that the Provisional Government having been duly recognized, the highest international interests require that it must be allowed to pursue its own line of polity without interference on the part of the United States; that intervention in the political affairs of those islands by other governments will be regarded as an act unfriendly to the Government of the United States.

S. Mis. 5——40

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 187.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 24, 1894.—Ordered to be printed, to accompany Report No. 203, to accompany S. 1057 (Calendar No., 243).

Mr. DOLPH presented the following

LETTER FROM THE COMMISSIONER OF THE LAND OFFICE, RELATIVE TO CLAIM OF WHEATON & CHAMBERLAIN, OF CALIFORNIA, ACCOMPANIED BY STATEMENT OF SALARIES, FEES, AND COMMISSIONS RECEIVED BY THE REGISTERS AND RECEIVERS FROM ALL SOURCES AT THE U. S. LAND OFFICES IN ALABAMA, ARKANSAS, DAKOTA, FLORIDA, IOWA, KANSAS, LOUISIANA, MICHIGAN, MINNESOTA, MISSISSIPPI, MISSOURI, NEBRASKA, WISCONSIN.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
GENERAL LAND OFFICE,
Washington, D. C., March 31, 1894.

SIR: I am in receipt of your letter of the 4th instant, in which you request certain information relative to the land offices in Alabama, Arkansas, Dakota, and other States named, covering the period from July 9, 1877, to February 8, 1879; also requesting certain other information relative to the action of this office and of the honorable Secretary the Interior relative to the joint fee for reducing testimony to writing in establishing homestead and preemption claims.

In reply, I have the honor to state that the letter referred to by you, a printed copy of which appears in your letter, was not addressed to the offices named in your inquiry, but that a similar letter, addressed to the register and receiver at Huntsville, Ala., was addressed under the same date to all the offices named in your letter.

The following is a copy of such letter, with appended note:

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, GENERAL LAND OFFICE,
Washington, D. C., July 9, 1877.

GENTLEMEN: I have to request that, commencing with the present month and continuing regularly from month to month thereafter, you will be particular to report to this office, in the manner indicated on the face of the accompanying blank, in addition to the other fees, etc., the joint fee, at the rate of 15 cents per hundred words, authorized by subdivisions 10 and 11, section 2238, U. S. Revised Statutes, for the services of the register and receiver in reducing to writing for claimant the testimony adduced in establishing preemption and homestead claims, etc. If no fees of the character alluded to are received during the month that fact must appear on the fee statement.

I am, very respectfully, etc.,

U. J. BAXTER,
Acting Commissioner.

REGISTER AND RECEIVER,
Huntsville, Ala.

A letter similar to the above, dated July 9, 1877, was sent to each of the following U. S. land offices:

Montgomery, Ala.	Salina, Kans.	Marquette, Mich.	Springfield, Mo.
Mobile, Ala.	Independence, Kans.	Traverse City, Mich.	Jackson, Miss.
Little Rock, Ark.	Wichita, Kans.	Fergus Falls, Minn.	Beatrice, Nebr.
Camden, Ark.	Concordia, Kans.	Duluth, Minn.	Niobrara, Nebr.
Harrison, Ark.	Kirwin, Kans.	St. Cloud, Minn.	Grand Island, Nebr.
Dardanelle, Ark.	Larned, Kans.	New Ulm, Minn.	Lincoln, Nebr.
Gainesville, Fla.	Hays City, Kans.	Taylors Falls, Minn.	Norfolk, Nebr.
Sioux Falls, S. Dak.	New Orleans, La.	Worthington, Minn.	North Platte, Nebr.
Springfield, S. Dak.	Natchitoches, La.	Benson, Minn.	Bloomington, Nebr.
Yankton, S. Dak.	Monroe, La.	Detroit, Minn.	Bayfield, Wis.
Bismarck, N. Dak.	Detroit, Mich.	Redwood Falls, Minn.	Eau Claire, Wis.
Fargo, N. Dak.	East Saginaw, Mich.	Boonville, Mo.	St. Croix Falls, Wis.
Des Moines, Iowa.	Iona, Mich.	Ironton, Mo.	La Crosse, Wis.
Sioux City, Iowa.			Wausau, Wis.
Topeka, Kans.			Menasha, Wis.

I have the honor to state that it is impracticable to furnish the data called for in your letter for the fractional parts of the months of July, 1877, and February 1, 1879, but I have prepared, and inclose herewith, a tabulated statement covering the period from the 1st of July, 1877, to February 1, 1879, and showing the total receipts on account of salaries, fees, and commissions earned at the several offices indicated in your letter; the total amount paid to registers and receivers on account of salary, fees, and commissions at such offices; the amount reported by such officers as fees for reducing testimony to writing, and the amount authorized and paid to said offices severally for clerk hire, rent, etc., omitting from the last two items the month of January, 1879.

Referring to the fourth subdivision of your letter, in which you inquire if the circular letter by Hon. J. M. Edmunds, dated April 14, 1864, was approved by the Secretary of the Interior, I have the honor to inform you that the circular referred to was only a Land Office circular, and does not appear to have been approved by any Secretary of the Interior. Neither does it appear that the circular letters of July 9, 1877, signed by U. J. Baxter, Acting Commissioner, and referred to in the fifth subdivision of your letter, was ever submitted to or approved by the Secretary of the Interior.

There is no record of any appeal having been taken from the ruling of this office requiring registers and receivers to account for the fees received for reducing testimony to writing, nor do I find any evidence that the question was ever passed on by the honorable Secretary of the Interior.

Commissioner J. A. Williamson in his report for 1878, p. 114, referring to the fees for reducing testimony to writing, says:

> On July 9, 1877, this office, after careful consideration decided that under the law, as it now stands, these fees should be accounted for as other fees and commissions.

This decision appears to have taken shape in the two letters addressed, respectively, to the offices at Prescott, Ariz., and at Huntsville, Ala., and directed the one to all offices where such fees were 22½ cents per 100 words and the other to all offices where the fees were 15 cents per 100 words, and no other rule or decision appears to have been rendered on the subject.

In reply to the eighth subdivision of your letter I have the honor to state that I find no evidence that the letter of Messrs. Wheaton & Chamberlain, dated January 11, 1879, was formally acted on by the honorable Secretary of the Interior.

Very respectfully,

S. W. LAMOREUX,
Commissioner.

Hon. J. N. DOLPH, U. S. *Senate.*

Memorandum.

The foregoing letter of the honorable Commissioner of the General Land Office, Division M, of March 31, 1894, "*in re* Wheaton & Chamberlain," shows: That the letter of July 9, 1877, of U. J. Baxter, then chief clerk of the General Land Office, signed "Acting Commissioner" (p. 2, Senate Report No. 203, Fifty-third Congress, second session), was never approved by the honorable Secretary of the Interior, and also shows that the letter of Wheaton & Chamberlain, of January 11, 1879, to the General Land Office, was not formally acted upon by the Secretary.

(The official annotation indorsed on said letter, now of record in the General Land Office, being thus: "Senator Sargent desires that no reply be sent until he shall file an additional statement on the same subject.")

Second.—The tables submitted by the Honorable Commissioner General Land Office with his said letter of March 31, 1894, show that the amount of money collected and reported by Wheaton & Chamberlain between July 1, 1877, and February 1, 1879, (to wit, $5,330.76), for reducing testimony to writing, exceeded not only the total amounts reported by any other U. S. land office registers and receivers during this same period, but, in fact, exceeded, with one exception only, to wit, Kansas, the aggregate amount reported from all the U. S. land offices in any one public-land State.

In the State of Kansas the total amount reported by all the registers and receivers of all the land offices of that State for reducing testimony to writing during this same period aggregated the sum of $6,014.26.

But it also appears that said U. S. land officers, during this same period, were all allowed for clerk hire for reducing said testimony to writing the aggregate sum of $5,741.67, and for office rent the further sum of $475, making a total aggregate of $6,216.67, a sum in excess of the total aggregate received from reducing testimony to writing during this same period.

Third.—In Florida the register and receiver received their maximum salaries and commissions, during the same period, but they did not report any sums by them received for reducing testimony to writing, yet during this same period they received the sum of $2,590 for clerk hire and $684 for office rent, making a total aggregate of $3,274, which added to their total salaries and commissions made a sum in excess of the total aggregate received by the United States from all of said sources in said State.

In Arkansas all the registers and receivers received their maximum salaries and commissions, and reported the sum of $1,153.57 for reducing testimony to writing, but during this same period they received the sum of $271 for clerk hire and $1,020 for office rent, making an aggregate of $1,291, being in excess of all sums by them reported for reducing testimony to writing during that same period.

In Wisconsin the total amount reported by all the U. S. registers and receivers from all 6 of the U. S. land offices therein during this same period aggregated the sum of $1,096.02, being about one-fifth of the sum reported by Wheaton & Chamberlain from the one land office at San Francisco, Cal.

In Alabama during this same period, the amount reported by all the registers and receivers from all the U. S. land offices therein for reducing testimony to writing, aggregated the sum of $596.22, but said officers received the sum of $1,096 for clerk hire, and $760 for office rent, or a total aggregate of $1,856, being about three times the sum reported by them for reducing testimony to writing.

In Iowa during this same period the registers and receivers from all the land offices therein reported the sum of $1,405, for reducing testimony to writing, yet they received the sum of $1,061 for clerk hire therefor.

In Louisiana all the registers and receivers from all the U. S. land offices therein reported the sum of $8.90 only for reducing testimony to writing, yet during this same period they received the sum of $1,693 for clerk hire.

In Mississippi all the registers and receivers reported the sum of $361.26 for reducing testimony to writing, yet they received the sum of $1,571.79 for clerk hire during this same period.

CONCLUSION.

So that viewed from any and every proper standpoint it now fully appears that Wheaton & Chamberlain reported to the United States, as received by them, from reducing testimony to writing by clerks employed and paid by them therefor, a sum of money in excess not only of the sum reported by any other U. S. register and receiver from any other U. S. land office, but far in excess of all the sums reported from all other public land offices together, in any other public-land State except Kansas, and in that State the registers and receivers were paid for clerk hire and office rent a sum of money in excess of the total aggregate of all the receipts by them derived from this source, and in excess of the sum ($5,330.76) reported by Wheaton & Chamberlain during this same period.

It would therefore seem that equity alone to Wheaton & Chamberlain demands that they should be, at the very least, reimbursed the actual sum of money ($3,800) by them paid out of their own private funds to their two clerks, for reducing testimony to writing between July 1, 1877, and February 1, 1879, aggregating the sum of $5,330.76, and which sum was derived from deposits of money made by settlers and contestants in controverted land cases and not otherwise.

During this same period the United States did not incur any expense whatsoever at the San Francisco U. S. land office on account of clerk hire of any kind.

The United States, therefore, instead of being called upon during the aforesaid period to pay out of the public Treasury any money for the hire of clerks at the San Francisco U. S. Land Office would, as a matter of fact, receive a clear profit of $1,530.76 after paying Wheaton & Chamberlain their equitable claim of $3,800 herein, and because that sum ($1,530.76) is the difference between $5,330.76, the sum received, reported, and deposited to the credit of the United States in the subtreasury at San Francisco by Wheaton & Chamberlain, and $3,800, the sum by Wheaton & Chamberlain actually disbursed and paid out of their own private funds to their said 2 clerks for the work by them actually performed for reducing testimony to writing, and by which labor only of their said 2 clerks said $5,330.76 was so earned and so received by the United States, and not otherwise.

For the United States not to reimburse these claimants said $3,800 by them so paid out to their said 2 clerks would in fact be to reduce the salary of said register and receiver by $100 each per month for nineteen months, aggregating the sum of $3,800 and in that event the United States would thereby become improperly the beneficiary of the total sum of said receipts of $5,330.76, a result so inequitable, so unfair, in fact so wanting in honesty that it ought not to be recognized by the Government when dealing with its own citizens.

Respectfully,

JOHN MULLAN,
Counsel for Wheaton & Chamberlain.

Statement showing the total amount of salaries, fees, and commissions received by the registers and receivers from all sources at the following-named U. S. land offices, and the total compensation paid said officers on account of salaries, fees, and commissions from July 1, 1877, to February 1, 1879; also (separately) the amount received for reducing testimony to writing during said period.

TOTAL RECEIPTS, SALARIES, FEES, AND COMMISSIONS.

States and offices.	Quarter ending—						Month ending Jan. 31, 1879.	Total receipts, July 1, 1877, to Jan. 31, 1879.
	Sept. 30, 1877.	Dec. 31, 1877.	Mar. 31, 1878.	June 30, 1878.	Sept. 30, 1878.	Dec. 31, 1878.		
Alabama:								
Huntsville	$727.30	$1,661.28	$1,849.58	$1,084.08	$1,084.56	$1,473.88	$615.15	$8,495.63
Montgomery	750.10	1,250.00	1,082.90	664.20	630.80	1,558.50	459.47	6,395.97
Mobile	576.22	582.14	454.16	360.60	371.60	446.75	172.31	2,963.78
Arkansas:								
Camden	837.60	1,101.99	1,444.19	1,158.00	827.64	1,297.60	306.09	6,973.92
Dardanelle	965.46	999.66	1,400.68	909.00	887.56	1,331.14	268.90	6,762.39
Harrison	902.50	1,184.74	1,489.46	768.92	822.16	781.24	251.52	6,200.54
Little Rock	580.06	1,405.39	1,535.90	818.50	935.06	1,554.36	345.60	7,174.89
Dakota:								
Bismarck	380.00	362.00	449.00	520.62	336.00	366.00	100.20	2,513.62
Deadwood	287.78	381.35	462.60	582.78	594.75	532.82	91.30	2,922.38
Fargo	1,189.15	2,260.48	3,109.82	8,450.74	3,895.12	3,559.66	590.19	23,055.16
Springfield	488.66	820.53	1,117.06	2,043.42	1,302.82	2,169.12	397.48	8,339.69
Sioux Falls	1,563.86	2,995.04	2,851.62	3,168.24	3,714.40	3,319.08	883.21	18,495.45
Yankton	755.64	1,159.92	1,551.20	5,776.88	3,006.54	2,182.26	456.14	14,888.58
Florida:								
Gainesville	1,511.14	1,877.42	1,519.30	1,304.06	847.30	1,062.72	373.88	8,495.82
Iowa:								
Des Moines	641.20	507.24	418.54	824.74	1,254.48	1,484.48	538.10	5,668.78
Sioux City	1,525.00	1,131.02	1,918.76	1,611.32	(*)	(*)	(*)	6,181.10
Kansas:								
Concordia	3,585.88	3,592.06	5,192.54	4,744.30	2,967.90	2,683.56	1,021.20	23,787.44
Hays City	1,417.77	2,047.12	4,024.74	6,745.36	5,562.92	7,009.64	1,113.81	27,921.36
Independence	2,524.24	2,225.16	1,310.60	1,677.14	1,633.92	1,147.90	374.90	10,893.86
Kirwin	2,651.94	4,921.80	6,[illegible].70	12,117.58	8,773.18	13,266.06	1,983.91	49,899.17
Larned	3,600.72	4,887.76	6,627.39	6,797.68	5,891.56	5,234.20	2,171.94	35,211.25
Salina	3,306.96	4,094.72	5,093.06	5,867.02	3,759.64	3,745.76	1,088.47	26,955.63
Topeka	.....	.....	1,911.84	813.64	630.90	704.14	186.42	4,246.95
Wichita	3,227.30	3,794.78	3,943.00	4,095.02	3,556.38	3,952.78	1,[illegible]	[illegible]

* Closed June 30, 1878; transferred to Des Moines.

Statement showing the total amount of salaries, fees, and commissions, etc.—Continued.

TOTAL RECEIPTS, SALARIES, FEES, AND COMMISSIONS—Continued.

States and offices.	Quarter ending— Sept. 30, 1877.	Dec. 31, 1877.	Mar. 31, 1878.	June 30, 1878.	Sept. 30, 1878.	Dec. 31, 1878.	Month ending Jan. 31, 1879.	Total receipts, July 1, 1877, to Jan. 31, 1879.
Louisiana:								
New Orleans	$757.44	$510.30	$401.88	$745.00	$506.40	$533.76	$176.02	$3,630.80
Natchitoches	453.92	582.72	457.02	376.78	234.86	461.68	117.45	2,263.83
Monroe	334.42	443.06	341.08	293.30	179.17	144.50	29.17	1,764.70
Michigan:								
Detroit	451.88	434.78	459.18	476.12	529.38	490.18	128.10	2,979.62
East Saginaw	381.16	444.40	397.77	509.32	451.32	900.70	130.90	3,215.37
Reed City	629.24	784.18	489.16	607.38	1,185.47	1,364.08	337.94	5,467.43
Marquette	531.20	429.40	442.38	1,114.08	652.84	602.06	189.66	3,961.62
Traverse City	1,518.13	1,798.82	1,335.58	1,422.56	246.45	(*)	(*)	6,321.59
Minnesota:								
Benson	1,648.24	2,758.88	3,490.50	5,559.34	1,678.06	2,722.44	479.09	18,332.55
Duluth	297.09	333.74	342.76	489.56	495.06	440.18	105.88	2,504.16
Detroit	768.52	1,759.76	2,047.58	4,582.92	2,241.76	2,997.84	539.38	14,937.76
Fergus Falls	849.75	2,247.06	1,720.39	5,064.54	1,725.46	2,239.98	449.41	14,296.60
New Ulm	1,508.26	2,069.84	2,049.92	3,181.68	2,090.28	1,855.10	341.58	13,966.62
Redwood Falls	1,069.05	2,200.22	2,022.50	2,875.78	1,517.74	1,718.60	288.63	11,713.13
St. Cloud	801.98	4,924.10	1,305.40	1,251.48	1,141.34	1,381.80	212.48	11,018.58
Taylors Falls	432.40	611.74	565.70	506.36	543.60	476.30	149.33	3,225.43
Worthington	1,587.88	3,480.18	2,280.28	2,891.36	2,187.92	1,507.66	696.12	14,581.40
Mississippi:								
Jackson	829.76	1,285.86	1,016.42	615.70	625.06	1,010.86	287.67	5,671.33
Missouri:								
Boonville	822.08	784.62	858.22	714.18	709.16	618.14	144.92	4,650.32
Ironton	597.02	659.34	806.10	495.34	465.28	613.98	150.50	3,787.56
Springfield	836.28	956.84	991.30	721.26	539.03	602.22	192.23	4,339.16
Nebraska:								
Beatrice	961.40	1,685.22	1,419.80	1,827.02	1,190.55	1,812.04	206.35	9,102.38
Bloomington	1,403.38	1,923.12	3,474.92	5,021.90	3,752.74	5,471.30	1,010.01	22,057.37
Grand Island	1,707.14	2,678.74	3,599.24	4,964.02	3,198.72	3,657.40	847.58	20,652.84
Lincoln	2,187.90	3,303.48	2,902.74	2,511.74	1,878.06	3,358.90	369.30	17,012.12
Niobrara	772.26	832.58	844.50	2,297.60	1,177.28	1,549.32	474.16	7,947.68
Norfolk	783.28	757.50	1,200.32	1,767.86	857.48	830.78	227.32	6,424.54
North Platte	417.26	537.56	545.57	877.34	1,106.04	1,494.52	244.30	5,222.59
Wisconsin:								
Bayfield	296.00	201.09	396.60	655.12	250.96	422.48	125.25	2,516.65
Eau Claire	926.78	898.68	921.14	1,103.44	761.04	917.66	179.79	5,708.58
La Crosse	668.48	927.80	758.44	685.74	580.22	339.98	86.29	4,116.86
Menasha	626.48	547.56	502.22	720.68	673.02	723.79	204.24	3,997.99
St. Croix Falls	707.12	767.48	608.52	752.34	742.56	727.96	192.79	4,498.77
Wausau	788.50	818.40	795.48	798.68	609.81	854.75	171.65	4,787.27

TOTAL COMPENSATION PAID REGISTERS AND RECEIVERS ON ACCOUNT SALARIES, FEES, AND COMMISSIONS.

States and offices.	Quarter ending— Sept. 30, 1877.	Dec. 31, 1877.	Mar. 31, 1878.	June 30, 1878.	Sept. 30, 1878.	Dec. 31, 1878.	Month ending Jan. 31, 1879.	Total compensation from July 1, 1877, to Jan. 31, 1879.
Alabama:								
Huntsville	$727.30	$1,661.27	$1,849.58	$1,064.06	$1,084.56	$1,473.68	$516.60	$8,397.07
Montgomery	750.10	1,250.00	1,082.90	664.20	630.80	1,558.50	459.47	6,395.97
Mobile	876.22	582.14	454.16	360.60	371.60	446.75	172.31	2,963.78
Arkansas:								
Camden	837.60	1,101.99	1,444.19	1,198.00	827.64	1,297.60	396.00	6,973.02
Dardanelle	265.46	299.68	1,400.68	909.00	887.56	1,321.14	288.90	6,762.40
Harrison	902.50	1,184.74	1,489.46	768.92	822.16	781.24	251.52	6,200.54
Little Rock	560.08	1,405.39	1,250.00	1,104.40	935.06	1,554.36	345.60	7,174.80
Dakota:								
Bismarck	380.00	362.00	449.00	530.62	336.00	366.00	100.20	2,513.82
Deadwood	287.78	381.35	462.60	582.78	594.75	532.82	91.30	2,923.38
Fargo	1,189.15	1,810.35	1,500.00	1,500.60	1,500.00	1,500.00	516.60	9,516.60
Springfield	488.66	820.53	1,117.06	2,043.02	1,302.82	1,697.18	397.48	7,860.75
Sioux Falls	1,476.55	1,523.45	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	516.60	9,516.60
Yankton	755.64	1,159.92	1,500.00	2,584.44	1,500.00	1,500.00	† 80.40 / 458.16	9,518.60

* Removed to Reed City July 15, 1878.

† Ex. mon.

Statement showing the total amount of salaries, fees, and commissions, etc.—Continued.

TOTAL COMPENSATION PAID REGISTERS AND RECEIVERS ON ACCOUNT SALARIES, FEES, AND COMMISSIONS—Continued.

States and offices.	Quarter ending—						Month ending Jan. 31, 1879.	Total compensation from July 1, 1877, to Jan. 31, 1879.
	Sept. 30, 1877.	Dec. 31, 1877.	Mar. 31, 1878.	June 30, 1878.	Sept. 30, 1878.	Dec. 31, 1878.		
Florida:								
Gainesville	$1,500.00	$1,500.00	$1,500.00	$1,500.00	$847.30	$1,062.72	$373.88	$8,283.90
Iowa:								
Des Moines	641.20	507.24	418.54	824.74	1,254.48	1,484.48	516.30	5,646.98
Sioux City	1,500.00	1,156.02	1,843.98	1,500.00	.....	.....	.....	6,000.00
Kansas:								
Concordia	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	516.60	9,516.60
Hays City	1,417.77	1,500.00	750.00	2,332.23	1,500.00	1,500.00	516.60	9,516.60
Independence	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	374.20	9,374.20
Kirwin	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,231.03	1,500.00	516.60	9,247.63
Larned	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	516.60	9,516.60
Salina	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	516.60	9,516.60
Topeka	125.00	125.00	1,441.60	1,293.65	630.90	704.14	186.43	4,504.72
Wichita	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	516.60	9,516.60
Louisiana:								
New Orleans	757.44	510.30	401.88	745.00	506.40	533.76	176.02	3,630.30
Natchitoches	453.92	562.72	457.02	376.78	434.36	461.58	117.45	2,863.23
Monroe	334.42	443.06	341.08	293.30	179.17	144.50	29.17	1,764.70
Michigan:								
Detroit	451.88	434.78	459.18	476.12	529.38	490.18	138.10	2,979.62
East Saginaw	381.16	444.40	397.77	509.32	451.32	300.70	130.90	2,215.57
Reed City	629.24	784.18	499.16	667.38	1,185.47	1,364.06	337.94	5,467.43
Marquette	531.20	429.40	442.38	1,114.08	652.84	602.06	189.66	3,961.62
Traverse City	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	246.45	.....	.....	6,246.45
Minnesota:								
Benson	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	37.51 479.09	9,516.60
Duluth	297.00	333.74	342.76	489.56	495.06	440.16	105.88	2,504.16
Detroit	766.52	1,759.76	1,502.00	1,971.72	1,500.00	1,500.00	516.60	9,516.60
Fergus Falls	849.75	1,500.00	1,500.00	2,150.25	1,500.00	1,500.00	67.19 449.41	9,516.60
New Ulm	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	175.02 341.58	9,516.60
Redwood Falls	1,088.84	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,911.16	1,500.00	1,500.00	227.97 288.63	9,516.60
St. Cloud	789.48	2,223.02	1,383.19	1,480.06	1,141.34	1,381.80	212.48	8,611.37
Taylors Falls	432.40	611.74	505.70	506.36	543.60	476.30	149.33	3,225.43
Worthington	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	516.60	9,516.60
Mississippi:								
Jackson	829.76	1,285.86	1,016.42	615.70	625.06	1,010.88	287.67	5,671.38
Missouri:								
Boonville	828.08	784.62	853.22	714.18	709.16	616.14	144.92	4,650.32
Ironton	597.02	659.34	806.10	495.34	465.28	613.98	150.50	3,787.56
Springfield	836.28	956.84	991.30	721.26	539.08	602.22	192.23	4,839.16
Nebraska:								
Beatrice	961.41	1,500.00	1,419.80	2,012.24	1,190.55	1,500.00	206.35	8,790.35
Bloomington	1,403.88	1,596.12	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	516.60	9,516.60
Grand Island	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	516.60	9,516.60
Lincoln	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	1,500.00	516.60	9,516.60
Niobrara	772.28	832.58	844.50	2,297.60	1,177.22	1,500.00	42.44 474.16	7,940.78
Norfolk	789.28	757.50	1,200.32	1,767.86	857.48	830.78	227.32	6,434.54
North Platte	410.49	537.56	545.57	877.34	1,106.04	1,494.52	244.30	5,213.62
Wisconsin:								
Bayfield	296.00	301.00	356.00	655.12	350.86	422.42	135.25	2,516.65
Eau Claire	926.78	898.68	921.14	1,103.44	761.04	917.66	179.79	5,708.53
Falls St. Croix	707.12	767.48	608.52	752.34	742.56	727.96	192.79	4,498.77
La Crosse	688.48	927.80	758.44	685.74	580.22	389.96	86.20	4,116.83
Menasha	626.48	547.56	502.22	720.68	673.02	723.79	204.24	3,997.39
Wausau	738.50	818.40	795.48	798.68	609.81	854.75	171.65	4,787.27

Statement showing the total amount of salaries, fees, and commissions, etc.—Continued.

FEES FOR REDUCING TESTIMONY TO WRITING.

States and offices.	Quarter ending—						Month ending Jan. 31. 1879.*	Total July 1, 1877, to Dec. 31, 1878.
	Sept. 30, 1877.	Dec. 31, 1877.	Mch. 31, 1878.	June 30, 1878.	Sept. 30, 1878.	Dec. 31, 1878.		
Alabama:								
Huntsville	$16.20	$36.24	$45.50	$53.50	$21.50	$12.48	.....	$185.42
Montgomery	23.00	120.00	103.00	52.00	72.80	40.00	.....	410.80
Arkansas:								
Camden	.....	144.50	253.00	156.07	117.50	128.00	.....	799.07
Dardanelle	.....	57.00	105.00	37.00	22.00	25.00	.....	246.00
Little Rock	.....	37.50	.....	53.00	18.00	.....	.....	108.50
Dakota:								
Bismarck	.....	40.00	5.00	12.50	6.00	10.00	.....	73.50
Fargo	68.56	158.50	104.40	50.50	27.24	35.00	.....	444.20
Springfield	18.00	22.00	26.00	50.00	72.00	169.00	.....	357.00
Sioux Falls	113.00	177.00	903.00	935.00	85.00	167.00	.....	2,380.00
Yankton	11.00	48.00	48.00	55.00	10.00	.....	.....	172.00
Iowa:								
Des Moines	.....	.....	.....	400.00	.....	.....	.....	400.00
Sioux City	350.00	182.00	280.00	193.00	.....	.....	.....	1,005.00
Kansas:								
Concordia	207.34	145.70	250.06	174.36	89.70	110.76	.....	977.92
Hays City	49.00	12.00	10.00	23.00	.....	.....	.....	94.00
Independence	11.00	398.00	31.00	433.90	84.00	79.24	.....	1,037.94
Kirwin	5.74	103.80	.....	.....	.....	51.16	.....	160.70
Larned	161.00	132.00	.....	.....	144.00	.....	.....	437.00
Salina	221.00	296.00	263.00	307.00	128.00	116.50	.....	1,331.50
Topeka	.....	.....	152.74	39.00	36.50	116.54	.....	344.78
Wichita	.....	402.00	332.00	185.00	305.18	406.24	.....	1,630.42
Louisiana:								
Natchitoches	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	8.90	.....	8.90
Michigan:								
Detroit	.....	.....	.....	.....	1.12	.....	.....	1.12
Reed City	.....	24.00	6.00	20.00	43.80	38.90	.....	132.70
Marquette	.74	.50	.....	3.70	7.74	5.84	.....	18.52
Traverse City	90.00	126.00	78.00	46.66	10.16	.....	.....	350.82
Minnesota:								
Benson	64.50	115.50	65.50	55.26	.....	183.76	.....	484.52
Duluth	1.00	12.24	10.24	19.50	50.00	73.50	.....	166.48
Detroit	31.80	57.74	23.74	5.00	37.00	12.00	.....	167.28
Fergus Falls	67.00	154.00	51.00	143.00	81.00	108.00	.....	604.00
New Ulm	27.80	31.92	43.60	27.54	5.00	3.00	.....	138.86
Redwood Falls	20.50	33.00	30.80	47.00	14.00	10.00	.....	155.30
St. Cloud	25.00	55.00	14.00	.....	.....	.....	.....	94.00
Taylors Falls	29.00	62.00	26.00	40.00	29.00	34.50	.....	220.50
Worthington	14.70	14.10	25.50	54.30	18.00	7.80	.....	134.40
Mississippi:								
Jackson	26.00	85.00	65.00	28.26	36.00	131.00	.....	371.26
Missouri:								
Boonville	82.18	82.88	87.34	71.16	167.34	66.14	.....	557.04
Ironton	24.60	29.80	32.98	13.58	14.34	62.58	.....	176.88
Springfield	.....	4.00	8.00	15.00	4.00	18.00	.....	49.00
Nebraska:								
Beatrice	86.50	153.00	109.00	302.54	192.26	360.16	.....	1,203.46
Bloomington	69.00	88.00	85.00	48.00	39.00	126.00	.....	454.00
Grand Island	121.00	188.00	215.00	236.00	125.00	202.00	.....	1,087.00
Lincoln	60.00	26.50	29.00	7.46	272.00	443.00	.....	837.96
Niobrara	45.00	68.00	56.00	79.00	21.00	160.00	.....	429.00
Norfolk	76.00	85.00	122.00	.....	.....	.....	.....	283.00
North Platte	14.00	74.46	36.00	63.00	116.50	147.50	.....	451.46
Wisconsin:								
Eau Claire	45.44	54.44	32.50	61.30	36.66	90.96	.....	321.30
La Crosse	23.74	56.00	47.54	40.74	19.10	21.74	.....	208.86
Menasha	1.00	1.00	2.24	8.50	8.00	4.00	.....	24.74
St. Croix Falls	56.00	81.00	49.00	82.20	72.00	54.00	.....	394.20
Wausau	11.70	10.20	10.20	10.36	9.20	95.26	.....	146.92

* The time and labor required to furnish a statement of the fees for reducing testimony to writing during the month of January, 1879, being a fraction of a quarter, renders it impracticable to do so.

Amounts authorized and paid for clerk hire and rent from July 1, 1877, to January 31, 1879.

States and offices.	Clerk hire.	Office rent.
Alabama:		
Montgomery	$1,696.00	$760.00
Arkansas:		
Camden	221.00	380.00
Little Rock	50.00	640.00
Florida:		
Gainesville	2,590.00	684.00
Iowa:		
Des Moines	1,661.00	.....
Kansas:		
Hays City	66.67	.....
Independence	2,700.00	.....
Kirwin	400.00	.....
Kansas—Continued.		
Topeka	.....	$475.00
Wichita	$1,575.00	.....
Louisiana:		
New Orleans	1,693.64	.....
Michigan:		
Detroit	.....	475.00
Mississippi:		
Jackson	1,571.79	.....
Missouri:		
Boonville	.....	270.83
Nebraska:		
Grand Island	80.00	.....

NOTE.—There was no money authorized or paid at any of the above-named land offices for fuel and light or janitor fees.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 188.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 24, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. TELLER submitted the following amendments intended to be proposed to Mis. Doc. No. 186, viz: Omit the parts printed in brackets and insert the parts printed in *italics:*

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That it be the sense of the Senate that the Government of the United States shall not [use force for the purpose of restoring] *attempt to restore* to the throne the deposed Queen of the Sandwich Islands [,or for the purpose of destroying the existing Government]; that the Provisional Government having been duly recognized, the highest international interests require that it shall pursue its own line of polity *without interference on the part of the United States;* that intervention in the political affairs of these islands by other governments will be regarded as an act unfriendly to the Government of the United States.

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IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 24, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. MANDERSON submitted the following amendments proposed to Mis. Doc. No. 186, viz: Omit the part printed in brackets and insert the parts printed in *italics:*

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That it [be] *is* the sense of the Senate that the Government of the United States shall not use force for the purpose of restoring to the throne the deposed Queen of the Sandwich Islands, or *interfere in any manner* for the purpose of destroying the existing Government; that the Provisional Government having been duly recognized, the highest international interests require that it shall pursue its own line of polity; that intervention in the political affairs of these islands by other governments will be regarded as an act unfriendly to the Government of the United States.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 190.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 24, 1894.—Laid on the table and ordered to be printed.

Mr. MCMILLAN presented the following

MEMORIAL OF THE PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL FRATERNAL CONGRESS RELATIVE TO THE TAXATION OF THE INCOME OF FRATERNAL SOCIETIES.

OFFICE PRESIDENT NATIONAL FRATERNAL CONGRESS,
Port Huron, Mich., May 19, 1894.

To the hon rable Senate and House of Representatives of the U. S. Congress:

GENTLEMEN: It is held by many that the income-tax bill attached to the tariff bill, now pending in the Senate, may, if it becomes a law, be so construed under the clause which includes insurance companies, either stock or mutual, "under whatever name and style," will also include the fraternal beneficiary orders of the country. As president of the National Fraternal Congress, and in behalf of the orders composing that organization, I do hereby petition your honorable body to so amend the bill as to exempt, in plain terms, these great benevolent organizations, sometimes confounded with ordinary live-stock or mutual insurance corporations, from the operations of the proposed law.

I do not say that it was the intention of the author of the income-tax bill, or its supporters in either House of Congress, to include these orders, but it does seem that after it has been placed upon the statute books the courts might so construe it, unless a proviso was attached relieving them from its operations. It might be held that the "income" of a corporation, including benevolent societies, paid out or divided, is a dividend, and hence make the drafts drawn on the widows, and orphans' fund, or the sick and disability fund, for benefits due the member, or the beneficiary of a member, liable to a tax of 2 per cent.

If it is not the intention to tax these benevolent orders, incorporated under the laws of the various States, then I can see no objection to adopting the following amendment, to be inserted after the clause exempting building associations in the new sections, which are now reported in lieu of old sections 50, 60, and 61 of the tariff bill.

Amendment.

Provided, That fraternal beneficiary societies, orders, or associations, operating upon the lodge system and providing in their laws for the payment of life, sick, accident, or other benefits to the members thereof, or to the dependents of beneficiaries of such members, shall be exempt from all the provisions of this bill requiring taxation in any form.

If the bill in its present form was intended to include these benevolent orders or associations, then it must be seen that it will bear heavily and unjustly upon the members, four-fifths of whom could ill afford this additional taxation or burden.

I desire to call your attention to the fact that the fraternal beneficiary societies of this country are in no sense insurance corporations, organized for profit and gain to stockholders or officers, and are not operated upon the basis of any stock capital whatever. They are mutual, benevolent, and coöperative through a system of lodges and of fraternal cooperation. They are representative bodies, not close corporations.

The National Fraternal Congress in its constitution clearly sets forth what orders are entitled to membership therein, and in plain language declares what the distinctive features of such orders must be, as follows:

"No fraternal society, order, or association shall be entitled to representation in this congress unless said society, order, or association works under a ritual, holds regular lodge or similar meetings, where the purposes are confined to vistation of the sick, relief of distress, burial of the dead, protection of widows and orphans, education of the orphan, payment of a benefit for temporary or permanent physical disability or death, and where these principles are an obligated duty on all members, to be discharged without compensation or pecuniary reward; where the general membership attend to the general business of the order, and where a fraternal interest in the welfare of each other is a duty taught, recognized, and practiced as the motive and bond of the organization.

The distinctive features of a fraternal benefit society are hereby declared to be:

(1) The lodge system.
(2) Representative government.
(3) Ritualistic work.
(4) Fraternal assistance to living members in sickness or destitution.
(5) The payment of benefits to living members for total and physical disability.
(6) The payments of benefits at the death of the members to the families, heirs, blood relatives, or dependents of such deceased members.

And it is hereby declared as the sense of this fraternal congress that no society whose distinctive features do not conform hereto is eligible to membership in the congress, or entitled to be classified as fraternal beneficiary societies.

We repudiate the speculative societies whose chief aim is to pay sums of money to members during life without regard to distress or physical disability, and declare that the aims of such societies are entirely opposed to the principles upon which the fraternal beneficiary societies are founded and by virtue of which they exist.

Again, the decision of the supreme court of Pennsylvania, given recently in the Dickinson case, "Ella M. Dickinson *v.* Grand Lodge of Ancient Order of United Workmen of Pennsylvania," defines in plain language what fraternal beneficiary societies are, and holds clearly that they are not insurance corporations, but purely benevolent associations.

The court said:

The first specification charges error in admitting the application above referred to. This is grounded on the assumption that defendant (the A. O. U. W.) is an insurance company and the contract sued on is a contract of assurance on the life of plaintiff's husband for her benefit. Such assumption, however, is unwarranted. The defendant is not an insurance company, but belongs to the distinctly recognized class of organizations known as benevolent organizations. What is known as a beneficial organization, however, has a wholly different object and purpose in view. The great underlying purpose of the organization is not to indemnify or to secure against loss; its design is to accumulate a fund from the contributions of its members "for beneficial or protective purposes," to be used in their own aid or relief in the misfortunes of sickness, injury, or death. The benefits, although secured by contracts, and for that reason to a limited extent assimilated to the proceeds of insurance, are not so considered.

Such societies are rather of a philanthropic or benevolent character; their beneficial features may be of a narrow or restricted character; the motives of the members may be, to some extent, selfish, but the principles upon which they rest are founded in the considerations mentioned. These benefits, by the rule of their organi-

zations, are payable to their own unfortunate, out of funds which the members themselves have contributed for the purpose, not as an indemnity or security against loss, but as a protective relief in case of sickness or injury, or to provide the means of a decent burial in the event of death. Such societies have no capital stock. They yield no profit and their contracts, although beneficial and protective, altogether exclude the idea of insurance, or of indemnity, or of security against loss.

The courts generally in all the other States have drawn the lines clearly as between purely business corporations and fraternal societies. Hence the great fraternal beneficiary system of this country, being purely benevolent in its aims, objects, and purposes, do most earnestly ask at your hands exemption from the provisions of the income tax bill.

The fraternal beneficiary orders represented in and eligible to membership in the National Fraternal Congress number over 50. They have a combined membership of over 2,000,000, and their outstanding certificates average $2,000 each, or in the aggregate over $4,000,000,000. During the last quarter of a century they have collected in and disbursed on the benevolent cooperation plan to the sick and disabled living members, and to the widows, orphans, and dependents of deceased members over $200,000,000. During the year 1893, as their reports show, they disbursed over $35,000,000. The system upon which they are founded does not provide for any surplus earnings to be divided among officers or stockholders. The benefits provided for in their laws, as can be plainly seen, is furnished at the actual cost thereof. The business affairs of these orders are economically administered. They have no high-salaried officials or expensive palatial buildings for offices.

A careful examination of the history of these organizations will show that they are in no wise speculative but purely benevolent in their operations. It will further show that the distribution of the vast amount of money herein shown has brought relief and happiness to thousands of American homes. It has prevented pauperism, thereby reducing the tax levy for the support of the poorhouses, and lessened the demands upon our public and private charitable institutions and on our liberal charitable citizens.

Now, in behalf of the great fraternal benevolent orders comprising the National Fraternal Congress I would respectfully ask and earnestly urge the U. S. Congress to so amend the income tax bill as to fully exempt these orders from any liability to taxation in any form.

Most respectfully,

N. S. BOYNTON,
President National Fraternal Congress.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 191.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 25, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. PEFFER submitted the following amendment to Mis. Doc. No. 186:

AMENDMENT:

That the Provisional Government of the Hawaiian Islands having been duly recognized, the highest international interests require that it shall pursue its own line of polity without interference on the part of the United States; that intervention in the political affairs of these islands by other governments will be regarded as an act unfriendly to the Government of the United States.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 192.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 2, 1894.—Laid on the table.
MAY 25, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. PALMER presented the following

MEMORIAL SHOWING THE REASONS WHY SENATE BILL NO. 1917 SHOULD BECOME A LAW AT THE PRESENT SESSION OF CONGRESS, BY JOHN COWDON, OF NEW ORLEANS, LA.

The Senate and House of Representatives in Congress assembled:

The most superficial observer must see the distress in this country is not only great but growing worse all the time, and it was great wisdom on the part of President Cleveland in calling Congress into extraordinary session, as he said: "To repeal some bad legislation," which has brought about the present calamities.

The repealing of the one act, the silver, or Sherman law, and even the restoration of the free coinage of silver will fall far short of the mark, but it must be the enactment of a few new, and at the same time, the repealing of a series of laws, some of which have been in force a great many years as well as others of a more recent date, that must be abolished to give the people the relief that they are entitled to and must have.

The remedy for the most prominent of these obnoxious laws is embraced in the above-named bill now before you, which, when enacted into a law, will not only give general and immediate relief, but will forever take from Congress those questions, some of which have been discussed without any satisfactory results since, and even at the adoption of the Constitution of the United States.

When these fire brands are taken from Congress, some of which as I shall prove were the chief cause of the war between the States, legislators will then have time to attend to the legitimate business of their constituents and prosperity will soon follow such as never before blessed any people on this earth, for all will have a plenty to do.

First. It will free the toiling people of this whole country from the slavery of a heavy interest bearing debt, both nationally and individually, and at the same time give a reciprocal national money system for not only this but foreign countries as all civilized nations or governments will recognize and adopt it, therefore making our money system not only national, but international and universal, a thing that never has been done before, nor never can be secured in any other way, and is what Mr. Cleveland not only said he wanted in his message to Congress last fall, but reiterates that statement in his recent veto message in the seignorage bill, which is as follows:

I hope a way will present itself in the near future for the adjustment of our monetary affairs in such a comprehensive and conservative manner as will accord to silver its proper place in our currency; but in the meantime I am extremely solicitous that

whatever action we take on this subject may be such as to prevent loss and discouragement to our people at home and the destruction of confidence in our financial management abroad.

This is right and should be secured at once, for, as Mr. Jefferson said, such a money system will be the great desideratum, as it will give confidence abroad and universal prosperity throughout this entire country, for as this money goes out from the Government direct to the people building up every legitimate industry, the interest will come in so that in the course of two years $40,000,000,000 will be so issued and will raise all the revenues that may be required to pay the expenses of the Government, securing a perfect, permanent, and economical revenue system without any tax on the people at all.

This is also in full accordance with the declaration of Mr. Cleveland for tariff reform, for it will be a reformation reaching far beyond any tariff reform as to do away with the whole tariff and the internal-revenue system, and at the same time secure more aid, or, if you please, protection, to the laborer than by any other system; and last though not least, the Government will then be done paying interest, which it has been doing ever since its formation under and through the schemes devised by the bankers, the total amount of which is $2,700,000,000, when $2,500,000,000 of that amount has been paid within the last thirty years on a debt of $3,000,000,000, when fully $600,000,000 of that debt is yet unpaid; and the way things are going on it may cost $600,000,000 more in interest to pay that debt, and if the money power can get up another war they will make the debt one thousand times $600,000,000, and so, as in Europe, it will go on increasing *ad infinitum* until they have absorbed the wealth of the people and destroyed the Government.

Second. It will secure the free coinage of silver as well as that of gold and establish a permanent standard value, which will be recognized as a part of the proposed money system all over the world between the gold and silver dollar regulated by the comparative weight of the two metals which is 16 to 1 for 16 gold dollars, each weighing 25.8 grains, is within a fraction of being as heavy as a silver dollar weighing 412½ grains, the exact weight would be 412⅝ grains.

It will also take the whole money system out of the control of the bankers and place it under the control of the people, the volume of which to be regulated by their well secured demands as set forth in the accompanying bill. The only way to put an end to the so-called money panics gotten up by the bankers in order to rob the people as they have done ever since the adoption of the Federal Constitution, and as one evidence of this I refer you to the following circular from The Referendum (Mount Pleasant, Iowa) Weekly:

The true cause of the panic of 1893—Evidence criminating national bankers everywhere in a conspiracy to bankrupt business men.—Read the bankers' infamous panic bulletin of March 12, 1893.

[This one, issued March 12, 1893, by Bankers' Association to all national banks.]

THE PANIC BULLETIN.

DEAR SIR: The interests of national bankers require immediate financial legislation by Congress. Silver, silver certificates and Treasury notes must be retired and the national bank notes upon a gold basis made the only money. This will require the authorization of from $500,000,000 to $1,000,000,000 of new bonds as a basis of circulation. You will at once retire one-third of your circulation and call in one-half of your loans. Be careful to make a money stringency felt among your patrons, especially among influential business men. Advocate an extra session of Congress for the repeal of the purchase clause of the Sherman law and act with the other banks of your city in securing a large petition to Congress for its unconditional repeal, per accompanying form. Use personal influence with Congressmen and pa-

icularly let your wishes be known to your Senators. The future life of national banks as fixed and safe investments depends upon immediate action, as there is an increasing sentiment in favor of Government legal tender notes and silver coinage.

The present status of the financial condition of this country only shows how well these and similar instructions, as will be shown, have been carried out, but the time has come when there has got to be a change, for as Mr. Lincoln once said of these men, "You can fool the people some of the time, you fool some of the people all the time, but you can not fool all the people all the time."

There is no telling how many millions of dollars the above circular has robbed the people out of during the last twelve months; it is but a fair sample of the cause of all former panics and it is the bankers more than all other causes that have made hard times as far back as I can remember, which began with the wild-cat concerns that sprung up all over the country soon after Gen. Jackson vetoed the charter of the bank of the United States.

To convey to your minds how worthless was this so-called money, I will relate a circumstance or two that occurred to my own knowledge: One day, as was a common occurrence, a steamboat landed to buy some cordwood, and as was the custom, before taking the wood on board, the captain, standing on the roof of the boat, asked the man on shore who owned the wood if he would take Illinois money. The reply was, "Yes, but it must be cord for cord, captain." The captain replied, "I have not got even a quarter of a cord of money and am out of wood, what shall I do? I can go no further and my boat is full of people." The wood man replied, "Just take all you want and bring back some whisky, flour, and bacon." So the boat got the wood, and such was the way thousands of cords were bought and paid for, and such was the way the trading boats supplied the people along the Mississippi River with dry goods, taking in exchange hides, peltrys, furs, beeswax, tallow, honey, and occasionally some cotton, for all along in the twenties there was but little of that raised except that which was used at home, it being the black seed, long staple Sea Island cotton, the seed being extracted by human fingers, and it was not until 1831 that the first cotton gin was brought into that section of the country, which was owned by H. P. Moransey, Millikens Bend, La., when on the Mississippi side of the river there was no gin at that time for 100 miles above Vicksburg. It was not until along in the thirties did we cease to hear the hum of the spinning wheel, at which time the steamboats got dimes out of the New Orleans mint, ten for a dollar, and paid them out eight for a dollar all along up the river for wood, and the people were glad to get them even at that rate in preference to the wild-cat issues, called money.

I will relate another circumstance: My mother, who lived in Eagle Bend, Miss., 35 miles above Vicksburg, with $1,000 of this money started to Cincinnati with myself, brother, and sister to put us in school and when we got to Louisville, the money she had was discounted 66⅔ cents on the dollar in exchange for Kentucky money, and when we got to Cincinnati there was a discount on that. This was along late in the thirties and early in the forties. The banks got up a scheme to base the circulation on State securities, precisely on the plan of the present national banking system, when the Bank of Louisiana, the Louisiana State Bank, the Mechanics and Traders' Bank, the Canal Bank, and the Citizens' Bank were all chartered. These banks were all owned and controlled by the cotton and sugar merchants of New Orleans, and were by law only permitted to charge 8 per cent per annum, but no one could get money out of those banks except through the merchants, and

that on mortgages on land and negroes, and in that way cost the people fully 20 per cent per annum to run their plantations, and as such was their securities all became worthless at the end of the war, for three-fourths of the cultivated land in Louisiana was so mortgaged and would not now sell for an average of $5 an acre, caused mainly by the twin evils—the money system, the tariff system—and the levee system now carried on by the Government of the United States to the great detriment of the people of the low lands.

The State of Missouri adopted the same system, and the old Bank of Missouri, like a giant oak that weathered the storm of the war, finally went under when plundered through the management of that river pirate, engineering fraud, and financial buccaneer, James B. Eads, and with the fall of that bank, like the Life and Trust Company, of Cincinnati, in 1857, went out the hard earnings of the toiling people; men were driven to insanity; thousands of women and children were left not only penniless, but homeless. The annals of crime otherwise committed does not afford a parallel case, as was that of the wrecking of the Bank of Missouri, the solvency of which was regarded as safe as are the rocks permanent on which the city of St. Louis is built; neither was the failure of the Life and Trust Company any fault (as charged) of Ludlow, but was the beginning of the conspiracy gotten up by the bankers to rob the people out of millions of dollars, as was done.

Although the name has been changed the principle of the two systems are the same, and it costs as much today to get money out of the national banks as it did out of that so-called free banking system; besides, there is no security for depositors in those national banks, the Government being responsible no further than for the money issued. Suppose, for instance, the Chemical National Bank of New York, which has a capital chartered stock of only $300,000 and a probable deposit of $100,000,000, were to get into the hands of dishonest men, the depositors would not know it until they were robbed of their money without recourse, as was the case of a friend of mine in Memphis, who one day deposited $5,000 in a national bank, whose check the next day for $50 was not paid as the bank failed that night when honest people were sleeping and thieves at work.

In the same way another one of those Memphis national banks failed for a large amount. The depositors were informed that they would not get a dollar. Among that number was Gen. Forrest, who got into the bank through the top of the building. Armed with two navy sixes and a bowie knife, it was but five minutes until they paid him his money.

The above instances are only illustrative of the whole pernicious system.

These spurious concerns robbed the country out of untold millions annually, until the war came on between the Confederacy and the U. S. Government, which gave the country a national currency which it never had before, and if there ever was any one thing worth more than all others that in any way compensated for that terrible struggle it was that it gave the country a national currency, called greenbacks, that came direct to the people from the Government, which this money power has done all it could to destroy ever since and even before the end of that war. And being apprehensive that as the Government bonds were paid off their circulation would soon pass out of existence, they are doing all they can to again force on the country this wildcat money, and will do it unless the plan of Mr. Jefferson, as indicated in the accompanying bill, be adopted, for there is no other way to get the volume of money the business of the country requires.

For were such banks created by the States and made as solvent as the wealth and credit of the States could make them for the redemption of such money it could not be legal tender and the banks would discount such money the moment it passed outside of the State where issued, precisely as was the case in 1857, for instance, with Louisiana money, which in that State was preferred to gold and silver coin, but at Cincinnati, Ohio, the banks there would only receive it at 3 per cent discount, and the further from Louisiana the greater the discount on that money, and this was the case with the money of all other States equally as good.

Now, there was no good reason for this; it was only so much robbery by the banks, and that is the reason why the bankers are now and have been doing all they could to destroy the national or greenback money and have money issued by State banks as before; and if there is a man in Congress from any of the States who has an agricultural constituency who favor such money the State or people that sent such person here should lose no time in recalling such person, as they have a clear right to do, and send in their place men to Congress who should be pledged to oppose all such money systems, for it is the most villainous scheme ever gotten up by unscrupulous men to rob the people in the future as they have been robbed in the past.

These facts, to say nothing of many more that I will place before Congress and the country, most certainly show good reasons for a change as herein proposed in the financial and revenue system of this Government, and when done will forever settle the great problem of finance and revenue; or, in other words, it will be the germ from which will spring the whole and true science of all political economy.

DO AWAY WITH BOUNTIES AND BUILD UP OUR COMMERCE.

Third. This bill will put an end to all subsidies and bounties on ships and seamen which are created under the pretense of building up our merchant marine, but in reality for no other purpose than to benefit the few capitalists at the expense of the many, and so long as such policy is continued our shipping interests will grow less in the future as they have in the past under the influence of such quack nostrums.

It will, on the other hand, build up our merchant marine superior to that of any other great maritime nation, for with cheap living, cheap iron and steel and other shipbuilding materials, and money at 2 per cent per annum we can defy all competition in shipbuilding and all manner of manufactures, and develop a prosperity throughout the whole country heretofore unknown. Then our ships can and will successfully carry our then vast and varied manufacturing fabrics into every market in the world, which will keep the trade balances in our favor. Then the gold will flow into this country and not out, as now; so, if those people who appear to be so much frightened about the gold leaving this country will pass the above bill there will be no more cause for such fear.

It will put an end to all trusts and gambling in futures on the entire agricultural products of this whole country; it will regulate the railroad rates on freight and passengers and cheapen all manner of transportation fully 75 per cent below present rates.

These are some of the reforms needed by the toiling people of the whole country, and should be enacted into a law during the present session of Congress, by both the Republicans and Democrats now in Congress representing the agricultural States of the Union; but should

these men fail to do this, a national party should be formed and thoroughly organized so as to carry the next Congressional States and Presidential election, with the accompanying bill as its platform, and when fully carried out as above stated will not only give immediate relief to the whole country, but will, without an apparent effort, prevent in future the creation of those mountain peaks of concentrated wealth and at the same time fill up the present great valleys of individual poverty, elevating the human race and arrive at the zenith of perfection in the great problem of civil government for all time to come, as it will make this Government as much better than it is at present as women are better than men, which is fully 90 per cent; and why should not this be so, for the great and leading grievances against the mother country, as enunciated in the Declaration of Independence, was that of taxation without representation, that mainly brought on the war of the Revolution, which, after eight years' struggle, resulted in the independence of the thirteen separate and sovereign States, so far as the men were concerned, but as for the women they were left out, and are to-day taxed without representation, which was then and is now all wrong and a disgrace to our civilization, for the women in that great struggle did even more than their part, and should then and now have the same rights before the law that was then acquired by their joint efforts and only secured to and then and now only enjoyed by men.

Then this Government will command the respect of the whole civilized world, as did the little Republic of San Marino with its standing army of one man command the admiration of thegreat Napoleon, who lifted his hat to the solitary soldier on guard, bowed, and presented his Government with a cannon after he had scaled the snow-clad Alps and was marching on to the victorious fields of Arcola, Lodi, and Marengo in defense of Italian liberty.

Then we will have no more use for armies or ships of war, and not more than one cannon, and that should be the size of the duelling pistol of Gambetta, as described by Mark Twain.

Then we will have time to not only reflect on the follies of the past—why should people have wars—but peer into the hidden vista of the distant future through the mighty lens of thought to contemplate and master the great problem of how to elevate and benefit the human race.

It is only in this way that we can ever arrive at that degree of perfection in human government which can fill the requirements of Omnipotence, and when done, then that great Spirit of purity, of wisdom, and all-wise power will be seen through the then clear blue skies coming to and, as foretold by the prophet Isaiah, will dwell on this then purified earth; then there will be no more wars, peace will reign forevermore, and as so many harbingers of a brighter civilization the plumed birds of paradise will come and sing as never did voice give forth sounds before; their sweet cadences like zephyrs will be wafted on the silent midnight air and be heard all over the world by every human being with a charm that will quiet your sleep as does the lullaby of falling waters.

It will be the acme of human happiness, for men will wake from their ignorance and prejudice that has led them to the folly of war and greet each other with the great law of commercial and political freedom in the one hand and the olive branch of peace in the other; then women and children will weep for joy. It will be an epoch long looked for, the dawn of a pure civilization, for the millennium will have come.

Now all this is not going to come to us as did the manna fall from the heavens that fed the children of Israel, but to bring it about we

have much to do as will be shown, and to do that, we must have plenty of money, and it is to the money problem that I will first call your attention.

From reliable data we learn that the amount of gold coin in the world is $3,700,000,000 and of silver coin there is $4,000,000,000, or in round numbers $8,000,000,000, and not more than $2,000,000,000 of that in circulation; also that the indebtedness of governments is $28,000,000,000, whilst that of other debts is $122,000,000,000, or in all $150,000,000,000. We are also informed that the present foreign commerce of this country is $1,100,000,000, while that of the interior commerce is over $18,000,000,000 per annum, and that the gold in the Treasury of the United States does not exceed $100,000,000 and that the surplus of silver about $400,000,000, and nearly all that has to remain there to redeem silver certificates.

All this shows that the business of this country must have some other basis besides that of gold and silver for a sound and reliable paper currency of sufficient volume for a healthful condition of our financial transactions in our foreign and international commerce.

This the present national banking system does not do, for by reference to pages 256 to 275 of volume 1 in the annual report of the Comptroller of the Currency for the year of 1891 it will be seen that the national bank from 1863, when there were only 66, to 1891, when there were 3,150, with a capital never exceeding $700,000,000, after paying $900,000,000 for expenses, had an undivided net profit of $7,300,000,000.

Thus it will be seen that these national banks in thirty years have absorbed over $8,000,000,000 of the hard earnings of the people in expenses and profits, or nearly one-third of the taxable wealth of the whole country, it being in round numbers about $24,000,000,000, when there is 37,000,000,000 not taxed at all, and while this has been done, which the statistics show, there is now 31,000 millionaires and 4,000,000 of tramps, or more properly speaking, men walking over the country seeking employment, when before this period of finance there was but 1 millionaire and no record of such person as a tramp.

As corroborative of this the last official report shows that last year the national banks of this country had a net profit of 72 per cent on the amount of their invested capital.

The trouble caused by that ruinous banking system does not stop there, for since that time the individual debts of farmers have increased to over $300,000,000 in such States as Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and proportionately as great in all the other Northwestern and Southern agricultural States, when the last official reports show that the amount on farm mortgages now amount to $6,000,000,000.

Now all this shows that the present money system of this country is radically wrong, and that we must have some other system, and that system must have some other basis of circulation, and that as good as and in addition to that of gold and silver, and as all private investments are regarded safest in real estate, then why should not the Government be equally as safe and come to the relief of the people direct with the loan of its real estate full legal tender certificate at the rate of 2 per cent per annum, paid semiannually in advance, when secured as provided for in section 1 of the bill now before you.

When that bill may be enacted into a law it will soon not only relieve the owners of all real estate of their great indebtedness on the principal, but will save to them fully $600,000,000 a year in interest, estimating that their mortgaged indebtedness is $15,000,000,000 on an average of 6 per cent interest per annum equal $900,000,000, while the $300,000,000

the people would continue to pay in interest at 2 per cent per annum on the same amount would save fully ten times that amount of money, for, as provided in section 4 of the bill, it would be the means of doing away with the whole tariff system, which now costs each person fully $50 more to live in this country each year than would it cost them did we not have any tariff or a sum equal to $3,200,000,000 annually.

In this way by loans and insurance as provided for in the bill will within two years' time we may safely rely on fully $800,000,000 a year for the national revenues, and should more be required, that can be done by a graduated income tax on all assessments and incomes of not over one mill on the dollar; but even that would not be necessary, for by the above system of loans for revenues and the reduction of Government expenses that will naturally follow the reforms that this bill will soon bring about, the expense of the Government will not be half what it now is, and shows that while this will be the cheapest system for revenues ever inaugurated by this or any other Government it will produce more than double the revenues that will be required without one dollar tax on the people as now collected.

This will also put into circulation all the money that is now drawing over 2 per cent interest per annum by building up and developing thousands of new and profitable enterprises all over the country now not thought of, and transforming, as it were, thousands of bond-clipping drones into working bees.

It will also give profitable employment to hundreds, thousands, and millions now unemployed. Then such things as strikes in the coal and other mines and manufacturing establishments, and along the lines of the great railways throughout the country, will never again be heard of, for all will have a plenty to do, and at better wages and less expense to live than ever before.

It will be the means of hundreds, thousands, and millions of people having homes that they never can have under the present money system of this Government. It will not only free this but all other governments and people that may adopt this plan from the slavery of the interest-bearing money power that makes and carries on war to suit its own selfish demands. It has dethroned kings, emperors, monarchs, and has destroyed empires, and to-day has the rulers of Europe at its command; while in this country it has mined and sapped the industries of this people until the majority of the wealth of 62,500,000 of its population has passed into the hands of 31,000 persons, and if not stopped will overthrow the liberties of the people and destroy this Government.

It has no soul; it is a devil on earth unchained; and, as Mr. Seward once said of African slavery,

> *Delenda est Carthago*, it must be destroyed; and if the compact of the Constitution stands in the way tear it to pieces; that there is a higher law than the Constitution.

So I say of this money power, it must be destroyed. But, unlike Mr. Seward, who was the great leader of his party, I would destroy the money power in order to save the Constitution as the highest law of the land, and has always been so recognized by the Southern people, as I shall prove. But as for the money power, the best way for its destruction is in the plan that I now place before you, and that to be done under and in conformity with the Constitution, which alone can preserve the liberties of the people of this country.

No doubt but great objections will be made to the proposed plan through the bill now before you becoming a law, and in political warfare it will be regarded in times to come as the great battle of Arma-

geddon, not, however, as written by Baldwin in his book, "Armageddon in the United States in Prophecy." But it will be regarded as the great conflict of human freedom as against the money oligarchy of the universe, for all forms of civilized governments are right in the main and not oppressive when freed from the control of this monstrous money power, that like a great anaconda is seeking to enslave the people of this country as it has enslaved the people of the Old World; and as an evidence of this I refer you to the following circulars, and the great distress now only shows how thoroughly those instructions have been carried out in this country within the last thirty years.

ENGLISH AND AMERICAN BANKERS' CONSPIRACY.

[Hazzard English banking circular.]

Slavery is likely to be abolished by the war power and chattel slavery be destroyed.

This, I and my European friends are in favor of, for slavery is but the owning of labor, and carries with it the care for the laborer, while the European plan, led on by England, is for capital to control labor, by controlling wages.

This can be done by controlling the volume of money.

The great debt that capitalists will see to it is made out of this war must be used as a measure to control the volume of money

To accomplish this, the bonds must be used as a banking basis.

We are now waiting to get the Secretary of the Treasury to make this recommendation to Congress.

It will not do to allow the greenback, as it is called, to circulate as money any length of time, for we can not control them.

But we can control the bonds, and, through them, the bank issue.

[The Buell bank circular.]

DEAR SIR: It is advisable to do all in your power to sustain such daily and prominent weekly newspapers, *especially the agricultural and religious press, as will oppose the issuing of greenback paper money*, and that you—a banker—also withhold patronage or favors from all applicants who are not willing to oppose the Government issue of paper money.

Let the Government issue the *metal* money and the banks issue the *paper* money of the country, for then we can better protect each other.

To repeal the law creating national-bank notes, or to restore to circulation the Government issue of *paper* money, will be to provide the people with plenty of money, and that will, therefore, seriously affect your individual profits as bankers and lenders.

See your member of Congress at once and engage him to support our interest, that we may control legislation.

These circulars were issued about the years of 1863 and 1875 and have had much to do in inaugurating the present money system in this country, and the agents of these national banks will now tell us that this bill is paternalism. Well suppose it is, to some extent; but not the ninetieth part of the paternalism that we now have and have had ever since the adoption of the Federal Constitution.

The national banking law, placing the whole volume of the money in the hands of and under the control of these banks, to contract it to suit their own selfish purposes, is one kind of paternalism, and the loaning of that money to the banks at 1 per cent per annum is another kind of paternalism, especially as they reloan, through their agencies, this money to the people at high rates of interest.

We also have a whisky paternalism—the Government storing whisky free of charge, whilst it decreases in volume and improves by age, all for the benefit of the manufacturer or speculator.

The protective tariff is another and even worse kind of paternalism which never was intended to benefit anyone except the manufacturers; a tariff such as we now have that compels the people of this country to pay $1 for an ax when the mate to that ax is sent to and sold at a *profit in Norway for 40 cents.* It compels our farmers to pay $10 for

a plow, when the mate to that plow is sent to and sold at a profit in Mexico for $7.

It compels the country merchant to pay fully 30 per cent more for a bill of goods than would the duplicates of such goods cost if purchased for and shipped to a foreign market.

As for revenue, the amount collected a few years ago on imported blankets, which were protected 100 per cent, was $1,280, when the fifteen or twenty manufacturers of blankets in this country that year sold fully 10,000,000 blankets. So, under that system of paternalism, which is nearly as old as the Government, to get $1,280 revenue the people paid those blanket manufacturers fully $10,000,000 in one year, and these are but mere samples of thousands of other articles that are protected in the same way which cost the people fully $3,200,000,000 a year, not one cent of which they should pay nor will pay if the plan proposed in the accompanying bill be adopted by the Government to raise the revenues to pay its expenses.

As for the workingman the following report shows how he barely makes a living and often not that, while the profits under the protected system go to the manufacturer.

WHERE THE WAGES GO.

According to the report of the Connecticut labor bureau for 1890 the 90,850 workmen of that State produced goods to the value of $160,000,000, or an average of $1,760 for each one. In return for their labor and skill they received on an average in wages $430 each, or barely one-fourth of the value of their production, when by the plan proposed in the accompanying bill of protecting the laborer and not the capitalist the man that now only gets $430 for a year's work would get fully $1,400 a year and perhaps more.

Paternalism showed its head and was recognized in another way. With the formation of the Government, as may be seen by the Constitution, by reference to that document, where those who were engaged in the African slave trade were protected in that horrid traffic until after 1808, and for fear that some good and otherwise pious people may have some doubts on this statement I will here quote the precise words of the Constitution on that question, which are as follows:

The fifth article of the Constitution provides—

> That no amendment which may be made prior to 1808 shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses of the ninth section, which reads as follows:
>
> The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit shall not be prohibited prior to 1808, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation of not exceeding $10 for each person.

Now, such is the language of the Constitution, and this was a compromise, for the States of Virginia, Maryland, and Delaware, that had tame negroes for sale, wanted to stop the slave trade, but were opposed by the New England States, that were importing wild Africans for sale which they had kidnaped in Africa, and were aided by North and South Carolina and Georgia, who wanted cheap negroes, no matter whether wild or tame. All this can be seen by reference to the journal of proceedings of that convention which framed the present Constitution of the United States in 1787.

When that feature of paternalism was ended in 1808 by passing the law prohibiting the African slave trade, it soon showed itself in one other and more hurtful form, under another name called that of protection to infant maufactures, that soon took the place of the slave trade, and had much to do in bringing on the last war with Great Britain'a

1812; for it has been asserted on good authority that these same people, in order to bring on that war, hired English sailors to desert and then notified the English cruisers where these men were employed, which caused the searching of American vessels, and that did bring on the war of 1812, the result of which was the raising of the tariff. So those people who had made their start by the African slave trade made vast fortunes out of the war, though the tariff increased and was caused by that war; and so it went on, and in 1816 out of the manufactured animosity to England was increased, and so it went on until 1828, when South Carolina resisted the collection of the revenues by her acts of nullification, which, like the Hartford Convention resolutions of 1814, and the personal-liberty bills in 1850, passed by many, if not all, the Northern States, that set at defiance the fugitive-slave law, all of which was wrong and unjustifiable, for no State has the right to set at defiance one law of the Government whilst it at the same time enjoyed the benefit of other laws of the Government.

But that trouble was bridged over by Mr. Clay's tariff compromise (so called), which merely graduated the tariff down for ten years, or until 1842. Then, under the plea of a war measure, those same people again found cause to, and did, raise the tariff to carry on the war with Mexico, which they had much to do in bringing about, and so the thing went on until 1860, they reaping fortunes all the time.

Then the war came on between the States, and the tariff was the ax, whilst the negro question was but the handle that brought that war on and caused the secession of the Southern States, which was the only honorable remedy left, as I shall prove, for not only, as Daniel Webster said to the Boston mob in the Burns case that were defying the fugitive-slave law, "A contract broken on one side is broken on all sides," but Mr. Madison said:

> A breach of the fundamental principles of the contract by a part of the society would certainly absolve the other from the obligation to it. If the breach of any article by any of the parties does not set the others at liberty, it is because it is implied in the compact itself, and particularly by the law of it, which gives an indefinite authority to the majority to bind the whole in all cases. (*See* Journal proceedings in Federal convention that framed the Constitution, p. 206.)

And as there was no such authority granted, even by implication, as may be seen by the original Articles of Confederation, the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution itself, what was said by the men who framed the Constitution, and by all the States in ratifying the Constitution, it was a reserved right, which can not be truthfully denied, as I shall prove. And no one regretted the necessity for such course on the part of the Southern people more than did Mr. Davis, for he was the last one to leave the Senate and only did so in obedience to the instruction from the State of Mississippi, and when he did leave it was with emotions similar to those that filled the great heart of Napoleon when he left the tower of the flaming "Kremlin," where he stood and witnessed the burning of Moscow, which he afterwards described as an "ocean of flames," for Mr. Davis's devotion to the Union, under and with the Constitution, amounted almost to idolatry. I know this to be true, and as Mr. Lincoln was honest and unsuspecting, so was Mr. Davis true to his convictions of what was right. That this was so, and to correct many popular errors, we must go back to the beginning and learn when and how the colonies were formed, and by whom; then you will see why it was that King George of England acknowledged the thirteen original colonies as so many independent *sovereign States after the* war of the Revolution.

The Plymouth Colony was formed and organized separate and distinct from all others November 11, 1620, under King James, by whom a patent or charter was granted to William Bradford and associates.

The Massachusetts charter was granted separate and distinct from all others March, 1628, by King Charles.

The New Hampshire charter was in the same way granted to Capt. John Mason in November, 1629.

New Jersey was a part of the territory of New York, but in 1664, by the Duke of York was granted a separate charter to Lord Berkely and to Sir George Carteret.

Pennsylvania, under William Penn, was granted a charter, 1681, by King Charles II.

Delaware, in 1703, was formed from a part of Pennsylvania.

North Carolina was granted a charter in March, 1662.

South Carolina was granted a charter in April, 1663, by King Charles the Second.

Maine: For this colony a charter was granted in 1639 to Ferdinand Garges.

Conneticut: For this colony a charter was granted in 1638.

Rhode Island: For this colony a charter was granted to Roger Williams in 1643 from the Earl of Warwick, and in 1663 from Charles the Second.

Maryland: For this colony a charter was granted June, 20, 1650, to Lord Baltimore and others.

New York: A charter for this colony was granted by King Charles the Second to his nephew, the Duke of York, in 1664.

Georgia: For this colony a charter was granted in 1732 by King George the Second to Oglethorpe and others.

Virginia was granted a charter in 1652 by King Charles the Second.

Such was the formation of the thirteen colonies, each separate and apart from each other.

This was the opinion of a very distinguished jurist who said—

> The colonies had a common origin and owed a common allegiance, and the inhabitants of each were British subjects. They had no direct political connection with each other. Each was independent of each other. Each was independent of all others. Each in a limited sense were sovereign within its own territory. (*See* Story on the Constitution, Book 1, pp. 124 and 125, 4th edition.)

This is all true, for although the colonies were independent of each other, they were not completely sovereign, for they were subject to the British Crown, the sovereign head, and it was to overthrow that sovereign head that the war of the Revolution was fought and won, which resulted in the separate and independent sovereignty of each State, not only of the mother country, but of each other, and was so acknowledged by King George in 1783.

It was not only on that principle of separate and independent sovereignty that the articles of confederation were formed under which the separate States gained their independence, which said—

> That no powers could be used by the Government (although in war) except those that were expressly delegated, but in framing and adopting the Constitution they went further and said, that whensoever the powers herein granted were used to their injury or oppression they were to be resumed by the people of the several States.

Thus it will be seen that the supreme authority or sovereignty passed from the British Crown to the people, to be exercised by them through *their* separate and independent sovereign State governments.

Therefore the sovereignty is inherent with and in the people, which

the powers of the Federal head or Government are not sovereign, but merely derivatory, being delegated by the people through their separate States. Governments for certain specified purposes and no other, though a social compact called the Constitution, and when violated absolves the aggrieved parties in States from the compact, and such States have a clear right to form such new government as may to them be most conducive to their happiness and welfare.

Such was the language of the Declaration of Independence. Such was the language of the old Articles of Confederation. Such was the cause for which the battles of the Revolution were fought and won. Such was the language of the men who framed the Federal Constitution. Such was the language of the separate and independent sovereign States in ratifying that Constitution, and such are the express words of that Constitution, and it is but proper that the people should so know and understand this and act accordingly, as the only way to preserve your liberties from the encroachments of the protected oligarchical money power.

In this connection it is but proper to examine into the power of Senators and Representatives—or, more properly speaking, the ambassadors—sent by the separate and independent sovereign States to a Federal Congress, and when there and so assembled are subject to no other control whatsoever than the State that sent them, and their credentials or authority can be recalled or revoked at any time by the State that sent them to such Congress—the only power that can rightfully exercise any control whatever over such agents while in Congress.

Neither is there any power in Congress to dictate to or interfere with such elections further than advising; for instance, Congress can suggest that the several States hold their elections on the same day to elect a President and Vice-President, and that they be elected by the popular vote of the people of the several States.

THE CAUSE OF SEPARATION.

It is a well known fact that the many oppressive acts of England, the mother country, forced her children, as it were, in the colonies to unite, and in the first place to make a declaration setting forth their grievances, which was done on the 4th day of July, 1776, the first section of which was as follows:

> That when any form of government fails of those ends (life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness), it is the right of the people to alter or abolish it and institute a new government, laying its foundation on such principles and organizing its powers on such form as to them should seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness.

The many acts of nullification of the fugitive slave law and the personal liberty bills passed by many if not all of the Northern States.

The remarkable declaration of Mr. Seward above quoted the sympathy shown for John Brown and his comrades that invaded a sister State and murdered some of its citizens for no other reason than they were the owners of slaves whose ancestors had been imported by the forefathers of those very people who committed this crime against the peace of the whole country, and many more such acts on the part of the Northern people caused the people of the South to do precisely what I have just quoted from the Declaration of Independence, and was done by the men who fought through the war of the Revolution, which resulted in establishing the independence of the separate sovereign States which afterwards formed this Government through a written *compact, called the* Constitution on the principle of separate and inde-

pendent State sovereignty. Gen. Washington was at the head of that convention that framed the Constitution.

Now such is only a part of the justification of the Southern people, and impartial history will one day so accord it as correct, and is just what the people of the Northwest will be forced to do, if there is not a change in the management of the Government, for I tell you the money power is fastening chains on you every day, and the time has come when the West and the South must act together and let nothing come between us, for our interests are identical and reciprocal. And if we do not so act in time, and that time has come, we will see more trouble than ever before, for our common enemy, the money power, as organized through the banks, the railroads and the manufacturers is unscrupulous, wide awake, and cunning.

The evidence of justification of the Southern people does not stop there. But we will go on and not only take the Constitution and what was said of the men who framed that Constitution, but what was said and done by the States in ratifying that Constitution.

It is a well-known fact that after the war of the Revolution the Articles of Confederation under which the independence of the separate sister States had been achieved were defective in many respects, and in 1787 a convention of all the States was called to amend the old Articles of Confederation, but instead of doing that the delegates concluded to frame a new Constitution. More powers were required, and now we will see just what powers were granted and what misgivings many had in giving even as much as was granted by the Constitution and where all powers not delegated were reserved. For the truth of this now let us go back to the beginning and see what was said and done.

In the old confederation the second article was as follows:

> Each State retains its sovereignty, freedom, independence, and every power and right which is not by this confederation expressly delegated to the United States in Congress assembled are reserved.

THE NEW CONSTITUTION.

On the 25th of May, 1787, the convention convened, George Washington, president. On the 29th of May, Mr. Edmund Randolph, of Virginia, presented a draft of the intended Constitution, which was at once acted on by sections, and in a few days when the last clause in the sixth article was reached, which was as follows:

> That Congress shall have power to call forth the forces of the Union against any member of the Union failing to fulfill its duty under the articles thereof.

Then Mr. Madison said—

> That the more he reflected on the use of force the more he doubted the practicability, the justice, and the efficiency of it when applied to people collectively and not individually. A union of States containing such an ingredient seemed to provide for its own destruction. The use of force against a State would look more like a declaration of war than an infliction of punishment, and would probably be so considered by the party attacked, or a dissolution of all previous contracts by which it might be bound. He hoped such a system would not be framed as might render this resource necessary and moved that the clause be postponed. This motion was agreed to.—*Mem. Con.*

In other words no opposition.

This put an end at that early day in the proceedings of that convention to Mr. Randolph's strong consolidated union, in which as he said the idea of the States should be utterly demolished.

So you see that of all that great convention of 140 men, Gen. Washington at the head, there was but 1 man there who favored the idea of coercion.

On this occasion Mr. Martin, of Maryland, said:

When the States threw off their allegiance to Great Britain they became independent of her and of each other. They united and confederated on principles of perfect reciprocity. They would now meet on the same grounds. But when a dissolution takes place *our original rights and sovereignty are resumed.* Our accession to the union has been by States, and if any other principle is adopted by this convention I will give it my opposition. (*See* p. 420, vol. 1, Elliott's Debates.)

And on page 429, same volume, Mr. Mason, of Virginia, said:

What, would you use military force to compel the observance of a social compact? It would be destructive to the rights of the people. I never will consent to destroy State governments.

So much for a part of what was said in that convention as to the power of coercion and the sovereignty of the States.

Now, let us examine the action of the several States in ratifying the Constitution.

We will begin with Massachusetts. When Mr. Wilson, who was a member of the Federal convention, when before the ratifying convention of that State to explain the Constitution, and was asked where was our bill of rights, he replied that—

In this form of Government they needed no bill of rights; that it was understood that no powers could be used by the Government except those that were especially delegated by the Constitution; that all the powers were left with the people which constituted their bill of rights.

The convention replied: There is no such declaration in the Constitution, and before we ratify that Constitution we will put that amendment in; and among the eight other amendments, all restricting the powers of the Government, was the fifth, which was as follows:

That it be expressly declared that all powers not expressly delegated by the aforesaid Constitution are reserved to the several States to be by them exercised. (*See* Journal proceedings.)

The State of Pennsylvania had eleven amendments, the first of which was as follows:

That Congress shall not use any powers whatever but such as are expressly delegated to that body by the Constitution of the United States, nor shall any authority, power, or jurisdiction be assumed or exercised by the executive or judiciary departments of the United States under color or pretense of construction or fiction which are not by the said Constitution expressly and plainly vested in the Congress, shall be deemed to remain with and be exercised by the several States in the Union according to their respective constitutions, and that any of the rights of individuals, made by the several constitutions of the States in the Union to the inhabitants of each State, respectively, shall remain inviolate, except so far as they are manifestly yielded or named by the national Constitution. (*See* page 452, vol. 2, Elliott's Debates.)

The State of Maryland ratified the Constitution with 15 amendments, all restricting the power of the Government, the first of which was as follows:

That Congress shall exercise no power but what is expressly delegated by the Constitution. (*See* p. 550, vol. 2, Elliott Debates.)

The State of Virginia had not only 20 articles of amendment, the first of which was as follows:

Whereas the powers granted under the proposed constitution are the gift of the people, and every power not granted hereby remains with them and at their will,

But, in addition, we find the following:

We, the delegates of the people of Virginia, duly elected in pursuance to a recommendation from the general assembly, and now met in convention, having fully and

carefully investigated and discussed the proceedings of the Federal convention and being prepared, as well as the most mature deliberation hath enabled us to decide thereupon, do we, in the name and behalf of the people of Virginia, declare and make known that the powers granted under the Constitution, being derived from the people of the United States, be resumed by them whensoever the same shall be operated to their injury or oppression, and that every power not granted thereby remains with them and at their will. (See p. 656 vol. 3 Elliott Debates.

The State of North Carolina ratified with 20 amendments, all restricting the Government, the first one of which was as follows:

That each State in the Union shall respectively retain every power, jurisdiction, and right which is not by this Constitution delegated to the Congress or to the departments of the Federal Government. And that whensoever the powers that are so delegated may be used for their oppression they be resumed by the people of the several States and that the doctrine of nonresistance to arbitrary power and oppression is absurd, slavish, and detrimental to the happiness of mankind. (*See* Journal proceedings of Federal Convention.)

Alexander Hamilton, who was one of the framers of the Constitution, and when before the ratifying convention of New York, which had 30 amendments all restricting the power of Congress, said:

It has been observed that to coerce the States is one of the madest projects that ever existed; a failure of compliance will never be confined to a single State. This being the case, can we suppose it wise to hazzard a cruel war. Suppose Massachusetts or any large State should refuse, and Congress should attempt to compel, would they not be influenced to procure assistance equally from States which are in the same situation as themselves. What picture does this idea present to our view, a complying State at war with a noncomplying State! Congress marching troops from one into the bosom of another State. This State collecting auxiliary and forming, perhaps, a majority against the Federal head.

Here is a nation at war with itself. Can any reasonable man be well disposed towards a Government which makes war its only means of supporting itself?

A Government that only exists by the sword. Every such war must include the innocent with the guilty. This simple consideration should be sufficient to dispose every peaceful citizen against such a Government. (*See* pp. 232 and 233, vol. 2, Elliott's Debates.)

And on page 406, same volume, we find that the State of New York, in ratifying the Constitution, among the thirty amendments the first was as follows:

That no powers shall be exercised by Congress but such as are expressly given by the Constitution, and all others not expressly given shall be reserved to the respective States, to be by them exercised, and whensoever the powers that are herein expressly delegated be used to the oppression or injury of the people they are to be resumed by the people.

Rhode Island, in ratifying the Constitution, declared—

First. That there are certain natural rights which men, when they form a social compact, can not divest their posterity of.

Second. That all power is naturally vested in, and drawn from, the people.

Third. That the powers of government may be resumed by the people whensoever it shall become necessary for their happiness.

Fourth. The United States shall guarantee each State its sovereignty, freedom, and independence, and every power, jurisdiction and right, which is not, by the Constitution, expressly delegated as reserved.

And in June, 1790, ratified the Constitution, with the twelve articles of amendments, all restricting the Government, the tenth of which was as follows:

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the people, are reserved to the States, respectively, or to the people.

(*See* Journal proceedings, Vol. v, p. 230.)

Delaware ratified the Constitution on the 8th of January, 1790, with the twelve articles of amendment as a part of the Constitution.

South Carolina ratified on the condition of the twelve articles of amendment, and further said:

This convention doth declare that no section or paragraph of said Constitution warrants a construction that the States do not retain any power not expressly relinquished by them and vested in the Government of the Union. (*See* p. 411, Journal proceedings.)

New Hampshire had more articles of amendment than there were articles in the Federal Constitution, all restricting the Government, the first one of which was as follows:

ARTICLE I. That it be expressly declared that all powers not expressly and plainly delegated by the aforesaid Constitution are reserved to the several States, to be by them exercised. (*See* p. 413, Journal proceedings.)

Vermont ratified the Constitution on the condition of the twelve original articles of amendment. When all those acts of ratification came before Congress, still acting under the old Confederation, to satisfy the people and get the new Constitution ratified, it proposed the twelve original articles of amendment, all restraining the powers of the Federal Government, the tenth of which was as follows, and a repetition, as shown, of what every State said that had acted at all, which was eight States for, as shown, Delaware, South Carolina, and Vermont did not act until after the twelve articles of amendment were, by the old Congress, proposed in order to get the States to ratify the Constitution at all:

That all the powers that are not delegated by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it, to the States, are left to the States or the people thereof.

Thus you see that without all these safeguards, or amendments, the Constitution never would have been adopted, and now I defy any one to show where in the Federal Constitution the power can be found, or where was it ever contemplated by the men who made and ratified that Constitution, except one man, Mr. Randolph, that the power for coercing and making war in one or more States, as has been done, can be found.

Taking these facts before you, as the representatives of the people, for your own and their reflection, unless there be a change in the management of this Government very soon, you will be forced, in self-defense, to resume the power that has been delegated, and confederate with those who are plundered, which means the people of the agricultural States of the South and great Northwest, among whom there should be no division.

In concluding this branch of the subject I want to say that the Southern people never complained of the Constitution, but it was in the way the Government was to be administered under the higher law or no law idea, and with all the landmarks of history before us, we felt justified in following the annunciations as set forth in the Declaration of Independence, the old Articles of Confederation, the Constitution itself and what was said by the men and States who framed and ratified that Constitution, and as above stated, there was no other honorable way left. They simply resumed the sovereignty on the condition that it has been delegated in so many express words by four States and assumed by all the States in accepting or ratifying the Constitution, and as Mr. Hamilton said, it was a war between independent sovereign States and not a rebellion as claimed by ignorant and prejudiced people, and in the conflict that followed, the Federal Government assumed the same position towards the independent and sovereign

Confederated States that did the British Government assume towards the colonies which were not independent and sovereign until so acknowledged by the King of England.

So there was no rebellious, ignorant, and prejudiced people as claimed on the part of the confederated States and in the face of all these historical facts that can not be denied, obliterated, nor further written down, what Mr. Hamilton foresaw has all taken place, and, as he said on another occasion, when Mr. Randolph a second time brought up his resolution for coercion, "When Congress resorts to coercion that ends the Federalist system, and I move to lay that resolution on the table," which was done with only three dissenting votes out of all that convention, as may be seen by the journal proceedings of that convention.

But as such course has been adopted as a natural result we now have an oligarchy that is now mining and sapping the liberties and industries of the people of the whole country.

I make this statement without prejudice, favor, or fear of contradiction, for my object is to undeceive and warn the people of this whole country of the great danger they are in of loosing their liberties, and at the same time prevent another war, not however between the States as we had, but what is worse a war between the people as a people and the oligarchy which now assumes the control of this Government, the horrors of which when once commenced will far exceed those of the French revolution.

And at the same time, as the woodsman would say, "*Blace out a way*" which may lead us out of these troubles without another war; and as well and truly said by Claiborne, in his Life and Times of General Quitman, "To gather up the scattered fragments and restore this Government to its original simplicity, purity, and honesty of purpose," and I am satisfied that the plan that I have proposed in the bill now before you will accomplish this, for it will at a single stroke put an end to all those laws that are now in force which are so oppressive to fully 90 per cent of all the people in this country; and we should emulate the example of Aristades, who said to Clymestocles, "Let us unite, forget our past divisions, and drive the common enemy from our country."

Then let us become one homogeneous people who want no more war; who want no more territory; who want no more bonds, the result of war, and who do not intend to suffer ourselves to be made gunpowder food. For those who do want such things our policy should be not only that of peace, not interfering with the affairs of other governments or people, and most especially with those that are weak and not able to defend themselves against a stronger power, but to trade with them on the great principal of

RECIPROCITY.

Such should be the policy and determination of the people of the South and Northwest if no others, while extending from the Alleghanies to the Pacific and from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico and up the Atlantic Coast to the Chesapeake Bay.

We will now resume the consideration of the tariff question. Which was the chief cause of the war between the Confederacy and the Government? For it was the ax, while the slave question was but the handle, that brought on that war which cost so much money and many lives; for the first thing after the war did commence, as with the cases

before mentioned, gave an excuse for, and did force on the country what's known as the Morrill tariff, which was higher than all previous tariffs and now in profound peace. We have the McKinley tariff, which is higher and more destructive to the interests of the toiling people than the Morrill tariff, and should the Wilson tariff bill become a law we will have the same kind of a tariff fastened on the country under the name of reform which is another guilded fraud, for like all previous tariffs it will continue to protect and enrich the capitalist, and at the same time starve the operatives.

Neither will it in the impoverished condition of the people produce the amount of revenue that will be required to pay the expenses of the Government, and when a person even talks about a different, safer, and more reliable way of raising the means needed, and at the same time aiding the people who do the work as will the plan proposed in the accompanying bill, we are called enemies to our country, and emissaries of the British Government.

As a further illustration of this pernicious tariff system, which, like the present money system of this country concentrates the wealth of the country in the hands of fewer people all the time, I quote the following from statistical information:

In 1860, says the New York World, our total wealth per capita was $993. The assessed value was $383, or .3873 of the true wealth—51 per cent escaping taxation, and 49 per cent being assessed at an average of 75 per cent of its value. In 1890 the per capita wealth was $999, and the assessed value $384. In other words:

Year.	Assessed value.	Actual wealth.	Population.	Per capita.
1860	$12, 084, 500, 005	$31, 201, 000, 000	31, 443, 321	$993
1890	24, 249, 589, 804	62, 000, 000, 000	62, 622, 250	999

There had been no increase practically in the wealth in thirty years, although in the ten years between 1850 and 1860 the per capita wealth nearly doubled, rising from $591 to $993, of which only $21 was from the discovery of gold.

In 1860 the wealth of this country was very evenly distributed; there were no multimillionaires, very few millionaires, few large fortunes. No special wealth statistics were collected, but the Census of 1860 shows half the wealth in possession of half the people. There were no bonanza farms and no tenant farmers. One-half the male workers were on farms they owned, and the average land value of each farm was $3,251, while few went much over or under. Poverty was confined to the cities, and to small sections of them. It is perfectly safe to assert that 91 per cent of the people held in fair and even measure 91 per cent of the wealth, while 4 per cent of the people owned the remaining 9 per cent, leaving not more than 5 per cent practically paupers.

The per capita wealth is the same to-day as in 1860. Each man eats and drinks, and any great change that has come must of necessity have been by a redistribution of wealth—by taking from many and giving it to one.

The Census of 1890 shows that the conditions of 1860 have been reversed; that 91 per cent of the people of the United States are to-day practically paupers, living from hand to mouth, dependent upon their daily labor for their daily bread, while 9 per cent are capitalistic employers, owning 84 per cent of the wealth. It divides the wealth among three classes of families in 1890—(1) multimillionaires, (2) employing capitalists, (3) wage-workers, as follows:

Class.	Families.	Total wealth.	Per family.
1	4, 074	$12, 400, 000, 000	$3, 000, 000
2	1, 092, 218	31, 620, 000, 000	28, 000
3	12, 010, 000	17, 980, 000, 000	1, 497
Total	13, 102, 292	62, 000, 000, 000	4,732

In the wage-working class are included all families worth $5,000 or less, or all having their share of the wealth. Now, remember that the wealth that must be created and consumed yearly in order to live—$800 the Census says for each family of five, $140 for each person—is included by the Census in this. It is a small matter to the multimillionaire, but a great one to the wage-worker. The actual wealth, omitting our daily bread, is as follows:

Class.	Families.	Wealth.	Wealth per family.
1	4,074	$12,396,768,800	$3,000,000
2	1,092,218	30,746,225,600	28,000
3	12,010,000	8,272,000,000	697
Total	13,102,292	51,414,994,400	3,932

Think what this means. While the average wealth is $2,932 per family, 1,096,292 families (all worth over $5,000) hold an average of $40,000 each, and 12,010,000 families (worth under $5,000) hold an average of only $697 each.

The 4,074 multimillionaires have 50 per cent more wealth than the 55,000,000 members of the 12,010,000 families belonging to the wage-working class, or 28 per cent of it all. The capitalist employers have 60 per cent and the masses of the people (91 per cent of them) have only 16 per cent of the wealth.

In 1840 England had been for eight centuries the strongest of protection countries. According to the legacy and succession returns of that year the wealth of the United Kingdom was distributed as follows:

Class.	Families.	Per family.
Rich	86,683	£28,830
Middle	782,100	1,439
Working	4,341,067	44

An almost incredible diffusion of wealth followed the adoption of freer trade in 1848, and finally of free trade in 1860, as shown by the same returns* for 1877:

Class.	Families.	Per family.
Rich	122,500	£25,853
Middle	1,824,400	1,005
Working	4,629,100	86

[*Mulhall's Dictionary of Statistics, p. 473.]

Over 1,000,000 families of the working class had joined the middle class. The average wealth of every working family had doubled. The average wealth of the rich families had declined. The rich were getting poorer and the poor were getting richer.

Now suppose we tabulate our American returns in the same way:

Class.	Families.	Per family.
Rich	4,074	£600,000
Middle	1,092,218	5,500
Working	12,010,000	128

Our census has not divided our population properly for comparison, but a little figuring will show:

The "working class" in the United States, which numbered less than 50 per cent in 1860, now numbers 91 per cent, and is rapidly increasing in proportion to the *others*.

The "working class" in England in 1840 numbered 83 per cent; in 1877 numbered *70 per* cent, and is decreasing in proportion so rapidly that it will not now number

much over 60 per cent. It absorbed nearly all the increase in wealth between 1840 and 1877, while in the United States nearly all the increase in wealth was absorbed by the rich and middle classes between 1860 and 1890.

In 1860 50 per cent of the families of the United States held 50 per cent of wealth; in 1890 we find 91 per cent of the families holding only 16 per cent.

What has brought about this redistribution?

Nothing but the two above-named causes and the railroads have brought about this concentration of wealth on the one hand and the great individual poverty on the other.

Nothing appears to satisfy their greed, and in order to not only retain the tariff but make it still higher, they are doing all they can in connection with the other branches of the money power to bring on a war with some foreign power.

Those men are now happy since the Government has resorted to the selling of bonds to pay its expenses; therefore, the people should not sustain any such policy any longer.

In order to get clear of that bond business and also that dangerous and oppresive system of paternalism called the tariff, let us wipe the whole thing out and adopt the plan proposed by Mr. Jefferson in the accompanying bill for finance and revenue.

This is what Mr. Hamilton and many others intended when they framed and ratified the Constitution. When they said they wanted a strong government, which could only be secured by the love and interest of the people, on this plan will make it the strongest and most united people on the earth, and not by the plan of ceorcion, the result of the higher or no-law doctrine of the protected money oligarchist, all of which was foreseen by such men as Mr. Madison, Mr. Mason, Mr. Marton, Mr. Hamilton, Gen. Washington, and many others, and if persisted in will be the final destruction of this Government and the downfall of the liberties of the people.

This plan was proposed by Mr. Jefferson after he had been President twice and was in the yellow leaf of life and retirement, at the zenith of his great reasoning faculties, who said "a national currency is the great desideratum;" that its best security was income-yielding property, and placed "land ahead of all other securities." He also said "that a national currency on such a basis will cement the Union, is I trust so evident that I need not expostulate upon it." He also said "beware, my fellow-citizens, of stockjobbers, of banking associations, who have an interest as distinct from that of the community in which they live as that of drones from bees." He further said "oh, beware, ye legislators, how you create a monied aristocracy, as dangerous to government as pretorian bands in Rome or Janizaries in Turkey."

He further said:

That whatever appertains to the general welfare should eminate from the General Government; this is the spirit of our Constitution; this is the central axis upon which the Union must revolve, and any important deviation from it must make all return to chaos.

He also said:

I will suppose for a moment what I think impossible, that the legislators of this country will persevere in the present system of chartering a special bank-note system, and that if it be continued till the population amounts to 50,000,000 and till a war ensues, what will then be the situation of the Government? What will then be the influence of banks? But why anticipate, you will say, greater evils than we now suffer.

See his letters in the National Intelligencer, January 9 and 15, 1817, over the name of Homa.

The *present condition of* this Government and the people thereunder

is only prophetic of the evils he foresaw and are now upon us, from the continuation of a policy he thought would be impossible for legislators to follow.

But such has been the case, and what that great man said should admonish us to adopt a different policy, such a policy as he then proposed and is now outlined in the bill before you; and in connection with what Mr. Jefferson said, the following will be read with great interest, coming, as it does, from a man who was without spot or blemish:

ABRAHAM LINCOLN'S PROPHECY.

Near the close of the war, in reply to a letter from a friend in Illinois, President Lincoln said:

"Yes, we may all congratulate ourselves that the cruel war is nearing its close. It has cost a vast amount of treasure and blood. The best blood of the flower of American youth has been freely offered upon our country's altar that the nation might live. It has indeed been a trying hour for the Republic; but I see in the near future a crisis approaching that unnerves me and causes me to tremble for the safety of my country.

"As a result of the war, corporations have been enthroned and an era of corruption in high places will follow, and the money power of the country will attempt to prolong its reign by working on the prejudices of the people until all wealth is aggregated in a few hands and the Republic destroyed. I feel at this moment more anxiety for the safety of my country than ever before, even in the midst of the war. God grant that my suspicions may be groundless."

What a wonderful prophesy and how terribly is it being fulfilled, and when I look at the condition of this country, brought about by those oligarchists and the unusual sorrow they have caused, it reminds me of something that took place when I was a boy. My widowed mother had a large number of thrifty and honey-making bee hives. When one day we saw a great disturbance among the bees of several of the hives; in a day or two we noticed cuttings of the honeycomb falling and some dead bees lying around, and a short time thereafter when we turned the gums down to see what was the trouble we found some empty comb, honey all gone. The bees were all dead or had flown away to starve, for it was in the autumn time.

The moth had been there, which was no more destructive to the little bees. Like little children that can not tell of their suffering, than is this at present, protected money power to the interests of the people, who will be driven from their homes, as was the little bee, unless it be overthrown by the plan proposed.

But before we get through the cry of class legislation will be raised by the very people who by class legislation have robbed the toiling people, as has been done.

Well, let it be class legislation, but from now on it shall be in favor of the many. While others of them, after violating the Constitution for nearly thirty years by this money system, will cry out, it is unconstitutional for the Government to so loan its full legal-tender real estate certificate to its own people. The very people that have made, maintained, and now defend the Government.

In reply to all this let me call their attention to the Constitution of the United States, where it says: "All the powers that are not delegated by the Constitution nor prohibited by it to the people are left with the people thereof," and as there is no such prohibition it is one of the reserved rights of the people who have a clear right to make such a demand of the Government, and more especially so, for Congress also has the delegated power by the Constitution to raise revenues in any way it may deem best, and does raise revenues from duties on imports and from an internal-revenue tax we now have, and from a graduated

income tax we once had, the constitutionality of which no one ever questioned, and the right is equally as clear to raise revenue from the loan of money as stated, and as for the constitutional right to make and issue full legal-tender paper money that has long since been settled in the affirmative by the Supreme Court of the United States.

THE SUBTREASURY PLAN.

Sections 9 and 10 of the above-named bill provides in the same way for the loan of Government full legal-tender Treasury certificates on farm products to enable the producer to hold the production of his or her labor until there is a demand for such productions by the consumer which will do away with the speculator and all his crafty schemes that can never be controlled by legislation any more than can the railroads be so controlled. Then the result will be that the producer will get more for the produce and the consumer get the same at less price than it can be got through the speculator. The whole thing can be systematized by States and counties, or parishes, and carried on in the Treasury Department with one-fourth the expense that it now costs to collect the national revenue and not cost the Government a dollar for storage or warehouses, for the people will form stock companies and build them at all railroad depots and other places of shipment, charging a moderate rate for storage, such as is now charged in many places.

The clerk at each depot or place of shipment should be a sworn and bonded officer of the Government without salary from the Government; but, in addition to the salary that he may get from the railroad company or the owner of the warehouse at place of shipment, he should be permitted under certain Treasury regulations for faithful performance of duty to charge a moderate fee or such per cent as is now charged for weighing, marking, and sampling cotton and other productions, and he should make out three copies for each lot of goods, one to be kept on file in his office, one for the Treasury Department at Washington City, and one for the producer and owner of such goods, who shall forward the same to the chief clerk of that Department, together with samples, marks, weights, etc., when application may be made for a loan of money from the Government, and these should be the vouchers upon which the money may be loaned.

The goods will not be moved until sold by the Treasury Department at Washington by sample, marks, weights, etc., furnished as above stated.

Then, as in all commercial houses at New Orleans and other places, an account sale will be made out, and the net balance will be sent to the producer through the depot or warehouse clerk, who after deducting his fees for weighing, marking, sampling, labor, warehouse charges, etc., shall turn the net balance over to the producer, taking his or her receipt, and this clerk shall, on receipt of the order to ship, accompanied with the money from the Treasury Department, ship the goods as directed at the expense of the purchaser and receipt to that Department for the money received.

This clause of the bill, while with perfect safety and no expense to the Government, will yield a large amount of revenue and at the same time greatly benefit the farmer, more especially those who are renters of lands, and others who are in debt.

While all those subtreasury legal-tender certificates, like the real-estate *and gold and silver* certificates, will pass into general circulation

and will, according to the time of loan, pass back into the Treasury in the payment of taxes or the payment of the debt for which they were issued, so on that point the enemies of this plan will have no just cause to cry out inflation; neither will there be any such cause for that cry about the legal-tender real-estate certificates, for no person will so mortgage their real estate to the Government even at 1 per cent per annum (the price it now loans its money to the national banks), unless they may have good use for the money. And in that way only can the main volume of the money be regulated by the people to suit their well secured demands for money; and were all the $15,000,000,000 so mortgaged it would be but $9,250,000,000, or only $149 per capita of the present population, which is increasing at the rate of 1 per cent per annum and were $1,000 per capita so put into circulation it would not be too much money for the people of this country to have, for the money of any country is like the blood in the human system—to be healthful it must circulate freely and be plentiful, when issued as proposed.

The above, together with section 19 of same bill, will put all that part of our money on a gold and silver and real-estate basis, whilst section 21 makes all the balance fiat money based on the faith and very existence of the Government; and all that part that may not be paid back into the Treasury and otherwise lost, will circulate at face value in all countries; while section 20 will not only kill off the chief objection made against the free coinage of silver, but will force England and all European governments to not only come to a permanent understanding with this Government as to the relative standard value of gold and silver dollars, as to how many grains of silver shall be put into a silver dollar and how many grains of gold shall be put into a gold dollar, but will also come to an understanding for the reciprocal circulation of all the paper money of each government when issued on the above plan by such government, as it no doubt will soon be done by all governments.

As regard to the objection made against the purchase of foreign gold or silver bullion and paying for the same with gold or silver certificates, that appears to me to be supreme nonsense, for if the Government can buy 412½ grains of silver or 25$\frac{8}{10}$ grains of gold, no matter in what shape it may be in nor where it may come from, and pay for it with a paper dollar that will not cost the sixteenth part of 1 cent to make it, that is most certainly a good scheme and on such conditions I can not see how this Government or its people would be in any way damaged if all the gold and silver in any and all shapes in the whole world were so dumped into the Treasury of the United States, for it is precisely on that plan that has the Bank of England, by authority of Parliament, bought up with its sterling paper certificates fully one-half of all the gold in the world, and if such is a good thing for the Bank of England why is it not a good thing for the Government of the United States to do the same thing; and as regard to the objection that all the gold and silver so purchased would lay in the vaults of the Treasury and out of circulation for the redemption of the certificates issued for its purchase, that would not be the case for that is provided for in section 4 of the bill.

And for that reason, if no other, both metals should be treated alike, so if one should be coined free so should the other, and any other course pursued by the Government is a violation of the letter and spirit of the Constitution, for under its shield all citizens have equal rights before the law, and when the Government coins gold free of charge for one citizen and refuses to so coin silver for another citizen it violates the

Constitution and should be made responsible to the person so wronged. And on that same course of legislation the Government would have the same right to destroy the production of iron, coal, wheat, cotton, or any other production, and no greater wrong would be inflicted on the people of this country than has been inflicted on the people by refusing to coin silver free the same as is gold coined free of charge.

Section 11 provides for the loan of money to corporations for sanitary purposes. The necessity for this is more apparent every moment that we inhale the impure air which is daily increasing as population becomes more dense and the country settled up, for it is a slow but deadly poison that pervades the whole atmosphere which comes up out of the ground, as may now be seen nearly every evening in the red and yellow tinged canopy at sunset, and there is no way to get clear of it so long as population so increases, but to sewer it out and drain it off into the salt water of the surrounding oceans. Therefore this question of sewerage is no more and all important for the healthful condition of the people of this country than is it beyond their control in their impoverished condition, and unless they are so aided by the Government we will soon see new and unknown diseases making their appearance and daily sweeping off thousands.

The la grippe, which no one appears to understand, is, no doubt, the forerunner or one of these diseases, and produced from that very cause and the use of impure water from surface wells and bad cisterns, as is scarlet fever, meningitis and other diseases, which now often prevail as regular epidemics throughout the whole country and more especially throughout the Northwestern States of this Government, and if not remedied as suggested, this poisoned continuation of the air will go on increasing until it will culminate in the destruction of the world or all animated nature thereon. Not, however, by being burned up by fire, as many people think, by leaving its orbit and flying to the sun, or coming in contact with a blazing comet or flying world on fire, but in the way as foreseen and described by Byron eighty years ago, in his piece called "Darkness," the last part of which was as follows:

The world was void,
The populous and the powerful was a lump,
Seasonless, herbless, treeless, manless, lifeless—
A lump of death,—a chaos of hard clay.
The rivers, lakes, and ocean all stood still,
And nothing stirr'd within their silent depths;
Ships sailorless lay rotting on the sea,
And their masts fell down piecemeal; as they dropp'd
They slept on the abyss without a surge—
The waves were dead; the tides were in their grave,
The Moon, their mistress, had expired before;
The winds were wither'd in the stagnant air,
And the clouds perished! Darkness had no need
Of aid from them—She was the Universe.

And such should be our warning.

Section 12 provides on certain conditions for cheap railway transportation, and it can be shown that there will be a way by which present railways may be reconstructed at small additional expense, and new roads built at no greater expense than at present, so that they can carry freight and passengers at even less rate than stated in the bill, and make more money than they now make; and if this Congress will pass Senate bill No. 1152, I will demonstrate the truth of this statement by building several roads in this country, the united length of which will be about 8,000 miles, during the next ten years; for that work will give me a start so that I can get the money to build such roads with,

the Lena River at Chabainskeya, thence in the same direction Dushjcacaham, thence to Neginudish, thence to Minusinsk on the Y isi River, thence to Barndni on the Obi River, thence to Albasar thence to the Ural River, 30 miles south of Urask at the fiftieth p allel of north latitude, a distance of 4,400 miles in Asiatic Rus thence along that parallel crossing the Dan and the Deniper river the Volga River and crossing that river at Nikalaic, thence to Kherk thence to Kermenetz, a distance of 1,000 miles in European Rus thence on the same parallel of north latitude 775 miles to Mayence the Rhine, thence in a straight line 375 miles to Havre, 40 miles so of the fiftieth parallel of north latitude.

This road after crossing through the center and the best part of Russian Empire will go within 120 miles of Odessa on the Black S and passing through Galicia and Bohemia in the Austrian Empire, be 100 miles north of Vienna, and will pass midway across the Germ Empire, thence through the southern part of Belgium and the north part of France to Havre, in all a distance of 6,500 miles, when the wh distance around the world in that way, by starting at New Orleans: going up the Mississippi River to St. Paul, will be 18,720 miles, and be traveled in sixteen days and six hours, with a railroad speed of miles an hour in six days. A ship speed of 35 miles an hour or se days and sixteen hours, or a steamboat speed of 30 miles an hour three days. I know that this can be done.

This main road should have a branch road commencing at the te parallel of longitude in the German Empire, extending in a straight l through France and Spain to Cadiz, 1,050 miles long; also a sec branch in a straight line extending from Cracow in European Russi the tenth parallel of longitude, passing near the city of Vienna Genoa, in Italy, 550 miles long, and also a straight line branch fi Cracow, 750 miles long, to St. Petersburg, and also another strai line branch, 980 miles long, commencing at the fortieth parallel of lo tude in Southern Russia, passing through Moldavia, Walachia, Rou nia, Servia, and Montenegro to the Adriatic Sea at Cotta.

Another straight line branch 310 miles from Constantinople to last-named branch. 50 miles east of where that branch crosses

culties and separated two continents by a canal. Can we bridge Bering Straits, the English Channel, uniting and striating two hemispheres from zone to zone with railroads, as above stated, that will harmonize as one people the whole world.

Such is only a part of the great work that I will accomplish through the bill now before Congress, for it will reclaim from overflow 70,000,000 acres of the most fertile land in the universe, and will increase production there one thousand millions a year for the first average ten years.

It will also give a 25-foot depth of low-water channel from New Orleans to Cairo, and 15-foot low-water channel from Cairo to St. Paul; the same depth low-water channel from Lake Michigan and Chicago to the mouth of the Illinois River, and a 15-foot low-water channel in the Ohio from Pittsburg to Cairo, and also a good 10-foot navigable channel from Lake Erie through the Kankakee and Wabash rivers to the Ohio River, and will at the same time, even on the present productions, save $200,000,000 per annum on transportation; and that is not all, for within ten years after the opening of the Lake Borgne outlet you will see the Tehuantepec and Florida ship canals built, 40 feet deep and of sufficient width, and made free for the commercial ships of the whole world, so soon as the amount of money they cost may be returned to myself and associates, and from two to three years after the opening of the Lake Borgne outlet.

A commercial gateway of fully 35 feet deep and of sufficient width will be opened from the Mississippi River, opposite the city of New Orleans, to the Gulf of Mexico, through Barataria Bay, which will be made nominally free after collecting tolls at half rates that are granted by the charter to pay, for all outlays that have been and may yet be cost in its construction, including expense for charter, light-houses, wharf, elvator, and all other appurtenances, for my object is to free all commerce that may pass up and down the Mississippi River of all tax possible.

Besides I will now demonstrate that grain can be transported from St. Paul, or any other Western port on lakes or rivers, to Liverpool at an actual cost of one-half cent a bushel for towage, when 2 cents a bushel would cover all expenses when we have water, and I will promise that if Congress will pass the bill that I now have before it, that so soon as I secure the low-water channel I have named, which will be within two or three years, the price of transporting grain from or to any port, as above stated, shall never exceed 5 cents a bushel.

This will cause the exportation of 4 bushels of grain to where we now export 1 bushel. By the same process that grain may be thus exported, can coal, and all other productions be transported to or from any port at the same reduced rates, which will give new life to all such industries in this country.

Those things I want to explain fully to Congress very soon, which will determine whether or not that body wants this great work accomplished. If so, they will pass my bill, and if not they will continue to sustain the Mississippi River Commission in its plan of destruction. The bridge at Bering Straits will be built on my steel arch plan, 50 miles long, and will cost about $50,000,000. Whilst the bridge across the English Channel, about 28 miles long, will cost, say, $25,000,000, for that channel will be bridged so as to connect England with that great international railway of peace and civilization by a short road from Calais out to the main road a few miles east of Havre.

There will be no more engineering difficulties to overcome in the building of these two great bridges than any ordinary bridge, for the

piers—the trouble to scientists in such work—will be built on a very different plan from those now built and at comparatively a great deal less expense.

As for the railroads, they will be constructed differently from any road yet built. There will be no wood or cross ties used in their construction. No locomotives will be used. The present kind of rolling stock would not be used.

There will be no dust or cinders. These roads will have the same accommodations for passengers that steamboats have. There will be no killing of stock or people along their lines, or after heavy rains by washouts or rotten bridges.

They will have greater speed than have the present roads, and as safe as the cable roads of this or any other city for their passengers on board.

All this—together with how I will build these two great bridges, draw the water from the great lakes as required, to dam up and change the course of rivers—I want to explain before the Senate, and before I proceed to do that I want all the members of the Mississippi and Missouri river commission to be there and give their opinions of such work, and I will show up more of their ignorance, as I have already done, to the satisfaction of all fair-minded and sensible people with reference to the improvement of the low-water channels of the Mississippi River and its tributaries and the stopping of the overflow of these valley lands.

They started out with the assumption that with levees they could hold the flood waters and cause the bottom to scour out. This they confessed to be a failure, when in one of their recent reports they recommended dredging to deepen the low-water channel, which any one with a particle of common sense knows would be as impossible where inclined to fill as would it be to bail out a raft. And more recently through their friends at Natchez, Miss. they said the levees can not hold the flood waters, that there must be outlets made, and in order to defeat their being made so as not to do any good and delay time so long as possible, recommend that more surveys be made scientifically and the outlets also be made scientifically by the Government engineers.

Those engineers have already made surveys sufficient and told you how to make the outlets so as to do no good; the one at Lake Bryne, for instance, they have said should have a discharging capacity of not over 100,000 cubic feet per second, and cease to discharge when the water in the river fell below the surface of the ground.

Such an opening would only be a mere high-water waste weir, and would not lower the river 1 foot at New Orleans, which is only 10 miles above that outlet when made.

They would at great expense floor the bottom of their waste weir so as to prevent its washing out. That does no good.

When on the other hand I would make it a tidal outlet, with a continuous flow of water as at the jump which would lower the flood line fully 16 or more feet at New Orleans and stop all overflows to and above Cairo, and not cost the Government a dollar until as good results were attained. Instead of this being done, which would not only stop the overflows, but would, at the same time, deepen and otherwise improve the low-water channels of that great system. Under the influence of the great east and west railways money continues to be appropriated to defeat, so long as possible, those great objects; and I am informed that those Government engineers now contemplate making some new reservoirs for the escapement of the flood waters. This

again would make a vast outlay of public money, requiring a lc period of time, and thus secure to the railroads a new and long le on the productions of the people of the valley of the Mississippi.

With such facts as I have already presented, can such an outrage longer sustained by the Senators and Representatives of these val States?

This great railway system, together with the universal money syst proposed, and free trade as the natural result of this money syst will bring this country, all European nations, and Great Britain near each other, with perfect freedom of trade and travel, that fr which will naturally grow such friendly relations that there will be more war, nor fear of wars, and peace shall reign on this earth forev for it is only in this way, with universal money and the free and o gateway of commerce, that universal and permanent peace can e come to bless, prosper, and elevate the moral and social conditions mankind throughout all time.

All of which is most respectfully submitted.

JOHN COWDON,
Phœnix Building, corner Tenth and F streets, NW,
Washington, D. C

WASHINGTON, *May 2, 1894.*

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 193.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 28, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Appropriations and ordered to be printed.

Mr. MANDERSON presented the following

STATEMENT IN SUPPORT OF MEMORIAL TO CONGRESS FOR THE DETERMINATION OF A PROPER POLICY FOR THE SYSTEMATIC IMPROVEMENT OF THE MISSOURI RIVER.

We believe that it is the privilege and province of Congress to determine the policy to be adopted regarding the great work of systematic improvement of the Missouri River. The Missouri River Commission is solely an executive agent of the Government. It is the creation of Congress, whose duty is to execute the will of its creator, not to determine that will. It is obliged to carry on the work at the places and for the purposes directed by Congress. Congress is vested with complete legislative discretion and makes the appropriations and directs where they shall be expended. In Congress resides the power to determine the whole policy regarding the river and Congress may alter or entirely abandon any policy. It is proper, therefore, for the interests dependent upon the river to present to Congress such facts and arguments as it is thought may lead to the adoption of a well-defined policy for the improvement of this river, a policy in harmony with all the conditions and such as is believed will prove successful.

There is a widespread opinion that when the General Government entered upon the systematic improvement of the Missouri River, the policy outlined by Congress was to begin the work at the mouth of the river and proceed thence continuously to up the stream, and to abandon all work in progress at various points along the river, and apply all appropriations made year by year to one locality known as the "first reach."

Many citizens of Iowa and Nebraska, after much consideration of the subject, are imbued with the belief that such a policy is contrary to the lessons of experience, and that even if it were in entire harmony with sound theory, and in accord with all the natural laws governing the physical changes of the river channel, it can not command the sympathy and support of the interests dependent on the river, and is for that reason inexpedient and doomed to eventual failure.

I.—IMPROVEMENT NATURALLY PROCEEDS DOWNSTREAM.

If it is deemed best that, regardless of the question of economy, the systematic improvement of the river shall proceed continuously from one place the work should be down and not up the stream.

The Missouri River Commission has published a map of the Missour River, of which Sheet XXIII, showing the "Omaha reach," is attached hereto and marked Exhibit A.

This map shows the shore lines of 1879 and 1890 and indicates in blue the lands eroded between these dates. It will be seen that almost without exception the blue areas or eroded lands are on the lower concaves of the bends; and the shores opposite have built up, and that the river channel has substantially maintained its width

The bottom lands through which the river flows are r'eadily washed away. The soil at times seems to melt into the waters, which are so constantly turbid as to have given to the river its characteristic name "muddy waters."

Two annual freshets, one in April and the other in June, not only increase the volume of water and the force of the current, but overflow the lower lands and thoroughly saturate the soil. During these periods of high water the whole character, location, and direction of the channel and current may be changed. As the water falls and the river returns to its low-water channel great damage to the banks occurs and the current, impinging against water-soaked and unprotected shores, carries away large areas of land.

When the current has passed through a bend in its natural course it makes a reverse curve in crossing to the opposite shore and impinges against the bank near the head of the bend with more or less directness, according to the configuration of the bend through which it has passed and the condition of the crossing. At the point where the current strikes the bank is scooped out in a small hollow or pocket, against the lower side of which is the greatest force of the water rapidly, wearing it away and gradually working the pocket downstream. Before the first pocket has reached the end of the bend a second, third, and even others may successively form at the upper end, all traveling at intervals down the bend.

Under these conditions shore protection should not begin at the foot of a bend and work upstream. The formation of a pocket above the head of the work will entail great expense, if it does not actually destroy the work below.

The first prerequisite for successful shore protection is a secure place for the head of the work, so that a pocket can not form above it and work down and behind it and roll it out. From such a safe and fixed point, at the head of a bend, the work should proceed downstream along a regular, even bank.

It is difficult to maintain shore protection in a pocket or where other irregularity in the curve of the shore line exists, as these furnish favorable points of attack, and if the shore protection is not carried away by the direct assault of the waters, eddies are formed, which usually undermine and so destroy the work.

A stream of water is best guided from behind as in a nozzle. From the fixed and permanent banks of a stationary reach, the current can be guided and the channel fashioned in regular, easy curves by working down the stream in harmony with its natural laws; but after it has escaped from constraint and is wandering capriciously under no fixed conditions, the efforts of man to control it by piling up work in front are generally costly and futile. The forces of a great river may be successfully directed but rarely combated except by works of the most heroic character on foundations most stable.

If the physical laws of the river require that bank protection shall proceed down the stream, channel correction can proceed up stream

only by doing the work in sections, beginning successively at certain points and working down to the head of the preceding section of improvement.

This is not continuous improvement as popularly understood, but rather working in reaches. If these reaches are not necessarily contiguous but are at certain favorable points on the river where the first expenditures will do the most good and are to be subsequently joined by the improvement of the intervening reaches so that the whole river shall ultimately become systematically improved, it constitutes the policy for which we are contending.

NOTE.—Normally the current hugs the concave shore and tends to erode the same and deepen the bend. Broad crossings give erratic direction to the water entering the bend, changing with stage of water and with the shifting channel of the crossing. To this variable impact pocket erosion is due, or the cutting of swathes which widen as they travel down the bend, thus producing the heaviest erosion as observed at the foot of the bend and a general trend of the entire bend system down the valley. This general movement in time produces changing bluff contacts which is an added source of confusion.

It has been held that radical changes find their normal adjustment up the stream, but this doctrine is not justified as the grade of the river maintains a substantial uniformity over long reaches for hundreds of miles, and sudden shortenings by means of cut-offs have been regained in a few years by lengthening in the vicinity so that the general lengths do not seem to suffer material change.

II.—CONTINUOUS IMPROVEMENT.

A.—NOT NECESSARY.

No system of river improvement contemplates a continuous line of work on both sides of the river. The object is to fix the crossings and *hold the banks.* Work will, therefore, be done only where there is danger of erosion.

The Missouri River carries in suspension a large amount of material. Where the current is strong this material—mud, sand, and even coarse gravel—is swept along by the force of the water. Wherever the current is slack, the material falls to the bottom and in the still water is deposited, very rapidly building up sand bars and shore accretions.

On the concave shore of the bends, where the banks are being eroded, the current is strong. On the opposite or convex shore it is "slack water;" deposit occurs and the shore builds up.

Thus one shore seems to follow the other and the channel of the river generally remains of the same width. (*See* Exhibit A.)

Bank protection should follow the concave shore where erosion occurs. The convex shore builds up and needs no protection. The work, therefore, should be first on one side and then on the other as the river turns.

This being the case it is difficult to understand why, since the work must necessarily be more or less disconnected, the systematic improvement can not be carried on at different parts of the river, to be subsequently joined together by work on intervening reaches.

B.—DEFINED.

Continuous improvement, as distinguished from work on different and perhaps distant parts of the river, does not necessarily mean that there shall be a continuous line of work, but that from a selected point every place on a given reach needing improvement shall receive it. If the river is in proper shape and the banks in favorable condition for bank protection revetment shall be constructed and the crossings defined by

training work where necessary. If it is not in proper shape then shall be made the attempt to force the river into an arbitrary course by means of dikes and by other heroic measures, regardless of cost.

We believe that the systematic improvement of the river in such manner will prove—

C.—TOO COSTLY.

The average fall or slope of the Missouri River is about 10 inches per mile. If the distance between two points is shortened by a cut-off, erosion of a point or other radical change, the slope is increased, the velocity of the current becomes greater, and its energy in tearing away the banks is correspondingly augmented until by deepening the bends the distance and slope are restored. (*See* pp. 2 and 3, report of L. E. Cooley, consulting engineer, attached hereto as Appendix I.)

From this characteristic of the river arises a physical law that for every change in the channel there will occur another resulting change, and also the rule that to hold the river in a fixed and permanent course there must be certain curves.

Time has been wasted and money squandered in trying to hold the river in unnatural situations. The river with omnipotent power sweeps away all barriers until it has worked out for itself such bends and turns as will give its waters the average slope and current.

On a river so long as the Missouri there must always be found some reaches in which the channel is for the time being in just the proper shape and condition for fixation; also many reaches where the channel is in the worst possible condition for improvement.

This being the case, if it be attempted to carry the work of systematic improvement of the river continuously either up or down stream, there must either be the miracle of finding the river always in the correct shape as the work progresses or vast sums must be expended to force it out of the channel or channels it may chance to occupy and into another of proper curvature.

The natural disposition is to first improve the river at its worst place, and it may be contended that where the channel is shifting and the banks unstable is the place most needing improvement and where of all places the work should be done.

Some idea of the enormous cost of such a policy of river improvement may be obtained from the work of the Missouri River Commission on the *first reach.*

(References hereinafter to the report of the Missouri River Commission are to the report of said commission for the year ending June 30, 1893, being Appendix Z Z of the Annual Report of Chief of Engineers for 1893, pt. 6, Vol. II, Report of Secretary of War to the second session of Fifty-third Congress.)

On a few miles of river near Jefferson City, Mo., known as "first reach," the commission had already expended $459,175.77 on June 30, 1893. (*See* Table of expenditure, p. 3927, Report Missouri River Commission for 1893.)

For the same place the commission has allotted $585,000 of the appropriations now available and also ask $665,000 additional (p. 3923, Report Commission for 1893), making in all $1,709,175 either spent or to be expended in three or four years on about 30 miles of river. (*See* Systematic improvement of first reach, pp. 3922, 3923, Report of Commission for 1893.)

An examination of the maps (pp. 4256 and 4264 of Report of Commission) reveals the fact that the work on this reach has been, not to

confine the river to its present channel and improve that, but by a system of costly dikes to force it out of the channel and course it now occupies and into what is believed to be the correct shape for permanent improvement. The commission says (p. 3922, Report for 1893):

With the exception of the Murrays Bend revetment, designed to secure the head of the work, the construction of pile dikes for channel contraction and regulation has mainly occupied the force. Seventeen thousand feet of pile dike has been built during the season, involving the driving of 5,737 piles to an average depth of 21 feet. Several years must elapse before the full effect of these works can be realized; but even in their present state the results obtained are exceedingly gratifying and leave little room for doubt as to the ultimate success of the work, provided the funds necessary for its continuous prosecution are furnished.

The amount of the funds necessary for the continuous prosecution for this kind of work should command serious attention.

The work on the "first reach" extends "*a total distance of about 14 miles*" (p. 3922, Report of Commission), and on this has been expended $459,175.77 (p. 3927, Report of Commission), making $32,798.27 expended per mile.

"*During the current season it is hoped to extend the work over about 16 additional miles of river*" (p. 3922, Report of Commission), for this $585,000 has been allotted (p. 3923, Report of Commission), or $36,562.50 per mile.

If the river on this 30 miles were fully and permanently improved the cost of the work might not be excessive, but the work has not been completed.

The commission report (p. 3922) "*work was carried on wherever necessary along this whole distance and fair progress made.*"

An examination of map opposite page 4256 of the report of the commission for 1893 will show many "*proposed dikes*" among those already constructed, and the commission are now before Congress asking for $650,000 more for work on this reach (p. 3923 Report of Commission, 1893). If this amount is obtained and the whole sum of $1,709,175 has been expended on this 30 miles of river there is no assurance that the work will then be completed. In the words of the commission (p. 3922 Report of Commission), "*channel contraction and regulation has mainly occupied the force.*" The object of the work has not been to hold the banks, but to get the banks in suitable position to hold. "*Several years must elapse before the full effect of these works can be realized*" (p. 3922 Report of Commission), because they are designed to build up accretions and form a new river channel.

If the work is a success and a proper river channel is realized the results attained will be, not the systematic improvement of the river on this reach, but only that the commission has succeeded in its efforts to force the river into suitable condition for improvement. The work of bank protection and river improvement will then have to be done.

As "*several years must elapse before the full effect of these works can be realized*" and the banks be ready for permanent protection, it is fair to suppose that the money the commission is asking is not intended for bank protection, but rather to continue the work of preparing the river for bank protection.

If this position is correct, $1,709,175 at least is to be expended in "channel contraction and regulation" on about 30 miles of river, about $57,000 per mile, with no possible assurance that the desired work will be accomplished for that sum. If it shall be, then will come the bank protection, for which a fair estimate would be an average of $20,000 per mile, or about $75,000 to $80,000 per mile for full channel rectification and improvement.

The distance from the mouth of the Missouri River to Sioux City is 807 miles (p. 3952 Report of Commission, 1893). At $75,000 per mile it will cost $60,525,000 to systematically improve the whole river.

Is Congress prepared to incur such an expense? Then money by millions and not by the hundred thousand should be appropriated.

D.—CONTRARY TO NATURAL LAWS.

If the channel of the Missouri River would remain stationary in other reaches the expense of forcing the river into a proper channel in these wild reaches might be justified, but, as hereinbefore seen, the channel is decidedly unstable in all its reaches. While time and money are being expended in channel rectification in those places needing it the river in other reaches which are to-day in ideal condition for bank protection may be changing from the best to the very worst shape.

On the other hand, if the banks are permanently secured on those reaches where the channel is naturally in the proper shape the abnormal reaches below will of themselves in time shift into favorable curves and the bank protection can be gradually extended downstream, and so the whole river can be ultimately fully improved with little or none of the expensive work of channel rectification.

The river is a monster of omnipotent power. It can not be coerced against its natural laws. Just what grade, width of channel, and curvature it should have has not yet been fully ascertained. There should, therefore, be left in the work of channel regulation certain frequent unprotected intervals, in which the river unrestrained may work out its normal conditions and correct any errors that may have been made by the works of improvement. Such intervals are as necessary to the safety of the works as a safety valve is to a steam boiler.

We submit, therefore, that the present method is not only in a large measure a needless expenditure, but by neglecting those places ready for bank protection the opportunity for economically improving them is being lost.

NOTE.—The first and ordinary impression is that the worst places, the wild localities, should be treated, thus correcting the most serious obstructions. The objection may be made apparent. You seek to deal with causes rather than effect, to direct and assist along natural lines of development rather than coerce and combat forces which thereby may in no wise be changed. The wise man first secures the possessions which he has, and then from these as a base reaches out, reclaims, and adds thereto. Thus the little causes accumulating in effect down the stream are successively masked or minimized until tendencies are set up which modify the character of wild reaches even before the actual work of improvement has reached the same.

E.—IT IS IMPOLITIC.

Public opinion is recognized to be a mighty power even in monarchical governments. In this nation, where the people are the sovereign, it is omnipotent.

All of the Missouri River below Kansas City, or 390 miles of its course, is in the State of Missouri. If the present policy of *systematic and continuous improvement* be continued and the work shall progress at the rate of 15 miles per year, all of the appropriations will be expended in that State for the next twenty-six years. Can it be for a moment expected that the interests dependent on this river in all the other States will be patient under such an injustice?

Omaha is 600 miles up the river (page 3952, report of commission). At the rate of progress the commission hope to make this season, viz. 16 miles (page 3922), the work will reach that city in about forty years, if that rate of progress can be maintained; but it can not.

The work may be *extended* over 16 miles and *carried on wherever necessary along this whole distance and fair progress* be made, but there is no expectation that the work will be finished on that length of river. Omaha and the up-river cities must abandon all hope of receiving any benefits for some generations to come.

A plan more certain to create within these communities the strongest antagonism to the whole scheme of river improvement could not well be devised.

Already the indications of discontent are becoming numerous. Kansas City is voicing its opposition to the system through its "Engineer Club," which has passed resolutions condemning the policy. The Kansas City Times of January 9, 1894, gives an account of a meeting of this club in which—

> The general opinion was that all money spent in improving the channel of the river might just as well be thrown into it, as far as practical results were concerned. They held the millions of dollars spent on the river have been wasted.

Copies of articles from the Kansas City Times and Kansas City Star are hereto attached.

Of course it is the interest of the railroads to discourage navigation on this great river and remove from the field a possible competition, and it may be safely assumed that they will stimulate the discontent. The Railroad Gazette of April 6, 1894, and following numbers, contain articles not calculated to increase in public favor the efforts of Congress to render navigable these streams.

A wise policy will seek to draw to its support all classes and all sections. How can this be done by a policy which ignores and neglects all sections except one?

III.—POLICY OF RIVER IMPROVEMENT RECOMMENDED.

There are certain points on the river which may be called strategical, where the river is in natural shape and where the currents are running normally. These points or reaches when found should be secured throughout as soon as practicable, in order to insure against material changes. Works of minor correction, as reducing the irregularities of bends and fully defining and restricting the crossings, will naturally follow and the reach ultimately brought fully into a completely defined and stable course.

A large element of time is involved in obtaining final results, as low bars and reclaimed areas must build up to high-water limits before the work can be considered as completed and entirely safe, a process requiring several years.

It is evident that in any reach in which the river follows substantially a proper course, and is relatively stable, the stream has been in a fixed position long enough to complete the work of bank building in large measure, so that the waters are restrained with some measure of definiteness, and that art may assist nature in speedily reaching an ultimate result.

On the other hand, the attempt to correct a wild reach of the river is essentially one of coercion, the bars to build up and the areas to be reclaimed are very great, and the river must be restrained in its new course for a long period of time before banks are sufficiently defined to warrant their permanent fixation. Meantime constant expense for maintenance and renewal of coercive works is entailed.

The definition of course already existing and fully developed in a stable reach of itself tends to extend down the stream, and this tend-

ency may be greatly stimulated. The river above is improving with time, so that the works below are subject to better conditions from year to year.

We may assume between the mouth and Sioux City 100 miles of river to be in tolerable condition so as to be secured at minimum cost, and that minor improvements may follow, year by year, until this 100 miles answers all the requirements. We may suppose further that this 100 miles is distributed in five or more reaches.

A wise policy will set out to secure these reaches forthwith, and in subsequent years they will be lengthened by extension down the stream, as invited by the developing conditions.

Some of these reaches will be at city points, for the largest factor which originally determined the sites of cities along the Missouri River were high banks and a fixed course to the stream. These characteristics are still measurably present at some of the cities.

In any event, the city reaches should be forthwith corrected, even if extreme coercive measures are required, for changes at these localities in landings, water fronts, and bridge crossings, aside from present menace and destruction, will enormously increase the cost of future correction.

Were sufficient money available doubtless a dozen reaches could be selected in the vicinity of cities and bridge crossings, and at other localities, which could be most wisely and cheaply improved at this time, and these once secured work year by year would proceed downstream from these several localities at minimum cost and as fast as the money would probably be available. The new channel would thus build up its banks in several localities and in a manner impracticable if all the new work was concentrated in one continuous stretch.

It may be concluded, therefore, that city reaches by force of physical condition, by the material interests involved, by economy in ultimate cost, and by good policy are the proper reaches for immediate and complete improvement.

It may be concluded, also, that, owing to the large element of time involved in the correction of the river as a whole, or any considerable portion thereof, that the improvement of localities as set forth has an immediate and tangible value which appeals to the good sense of the majority of people interested in the river, while at the same time it more fully serves the general and ultimate requirements of navigation than the improvement of localities entirely removed from local interests and benefits.

IV.—NAVIGATION AND CITIES.

The requirements of navigation demand that the permanent improvement of the river shall be completed in front, and in the vicinity of large and important cities before money is expended in partially settled country districts.

In the country no landings are needed; steamboats only seek to get along.

Though the channel of the river may shift and change, and the passage of to-day be a bar to-morrow, still there is a channel and a passage somewhere, and the boat, in charge of a skillful pilot, can get through.

In the city fronts the channel should be fixed, and permanent landings must be maintained, and they should be stationary and secure.

If there is any such thing as a "harbor" on the river, it must be at the cities and towns. The origin of the river and harbor bills was the

desire to afford to shipping safe and accessible harbors. What advance can any town make in shipping interests when the wharfage and landings of to-day are next week blocked by sand bars?

Not only should the cities on the river be assured that the channel will be preserved in their water fronts so that the port shall not by and by become an inland town, but they should be secured against erosion of the bank.

Navigation, like other traffic, can be fostered only by the upbuilding of all the interests on which trade depends.

Towns and cities, the very life of navigation, are made by the location and growth in their midst of manufacturing and other establishments and by the means afforded by railroads for the distribution of products.

No important interest can be ignored in considering the possibilities of advancing the cause of navigation.

The establishment of manufactories, the location of railroads, and the construction of bridges should be regarded with equal favor by the Government. The interests of no one should be imperiled. The object of expenditure in improving the Missouri River is primarily to advance navigation. If by the expenditure in a certain place this object can be attained equally well, and at the same time another great interest can be conserved, the place offering such opportunities should be selected for the expenditure, rather than one where navigation only would be benefited.

Costly bridges, splendid buildings, depots, shops, stores, manufacturing establishments, and all the means for the production and interchange of commodities; commerce, the lifeblood of the nation, in other forms than by steamboats, should not be left by the Government to the mercy of the all-devouring river, while, under the guise of aiding navigation, hundreds of thousands of dollars are expended in experimenting on a theoretical channel in some obscure locality.

Establishments of trade and manufacture are generally located on the level land, near the river. It is inconvenient to locate them upon the high hills further back, where railroads can with difficulty reach them, and where they would be cut off entirely from traffic by the river. The very interests of navigation demand that they shall be near the river. How can these establishments be built up if they are liable any day to be swept away by the river?

Real estate in city river fronts is valuable, and, as navigation increases, it will become much more valuable. A single acre here is often worth more than 1,000 acres elsewhere.

These considerations, to wit, safe harbors, stable landings, a secure water front on which may be located important industries, and the great value of real estate, should influence the expenditure of money at the cities, if doing so will conserve navigation as much as it will at other places.

We maintain that the expenditure of money at large cities will be of *more benefit* to navigation, or benefit *more navigation*, than if expended in the country.

The report of the Missouri River Commission for 1893 (p. 3934) says:

> The steamboats engaged in Missouri River trade are employed as packets in short-trip coasting trade, as towboats, as excursion boats, or as ferryboats.

The table given on page 3933 shows that of the 46,273 passengers carried in 1892, 41,833 were on short-trade packets, and of these 34,693 were excursionists, showing, conclusively, that the passenger trade is confined almost entirely to the vicinity of cities.

The freight for the same period was 236,872.9 tons. Of this 110,499.1 tons was short trade, and 91,092.6 tons sand, and only 30,372.3 was long trade.

That is, over one-third of all the freight was sand, pumped out of the river or dug out of bordering banks near the cities and transported to the landings for building or paving, and nearly nine-tenths of all the freight carried was short trade.

It is apparent that the only valuable navigation on this river which the Government can successfully foster is that confined to excursions and short trade in the vicinity of large cities.

The facts given point to but one conclusion, to wit: The systematic improvement of the river should be carried out, first in the vicinities of large cities, beginning, perhaps, with the largest and most important, if other conditions are favorable for the best results from the expenditure.

V.—OMAHA AND VICINITY.

As stated in the memorial and in the report of the engineer, L. E. Cooley, the Missouri River at Omaha is in the best possible condition for permanent improvement. The large expenditure by private corporations at that place may be made to contribute to the permanent system of bank improvement designed by the Government. The entire Omaha River front from the waterworks pumping station north of the smelting works down to the Union Pacific bridge is protected by riprap in the most substantial and permanent manner. There are only a few localities in this vicinity at present demanding attention, but in these places the river is wearing away the banks in such a manner as to not only jeopardize the work of private parties, but also to render valueless the Government work on the Iowa shore.

South of the city of Florence the river since 1890 has been constantly cutting into the Nebraska bank, and since that date has carried away the land for about 1,500 feet deep, 600 feet of which were eroded during the last year.

If this cutting is permitted to continue extensive changes must be expected throughout the entire Omaha reach, and the river be changed from a stable to a wild condition.

The pocket mentioned in the memorial has so completely changed the channel of the river at the site of the bridge of the Omaha Bridge and Terminal Railway Company that the east opening of the draw is now entirely filled with a sand bar and the west opening is rapidly filling. Unless this pocket be masked, as petitioned in the memorial, it will be absolutely impossible for a boat to pass this bridge in a very few months.

With the changed channel at this part of the river will result other changes at the site of the other bridges in this vicinity, so that unless the Government shall correct and properly repair the break in its work great damage must inevitably result to vested interests in this vicinity and to navigation.

JNO. M. DAUGHERTY,
Chairman Citizens' Committee.
JOHN R. WEBSTER,
Secretary Citizens' Committee.

I concur in the views expressed herein.

L. E. COOLEY,
Consulting Engineer.

APPENDIX I.

Report of Consulting Engineer L. E. Cooley, C. E., of Chicago, on the present condition and character of the "Omaha reach" of the Missouri River and improvement necessary for the fixation of the channel and estimates of the cost thereof.

IMPROVEMENT OF THE MISSOURI RIVER.

[Omaha reach—Florence to Union Pacific Railway bridge.]

The characteristics of the Omaha reach are known from surveys for the United States which have been made with more or less regularity since 1877. These surveys show very fully the succession of changes in shore lines and river bed, and the general surveys carried over the river in 1879 and 1890 develop the character of the river above and below. The last survey, made for the purpose of this report in October of this year, shows the location of the river bed and of the main shore lines as they now exist.

The object sought is the fixation of the river in a proper course on account of the very large and growing property interests in the twin cities of Omaha and Council Bluffs that would be menaced by any material change. The interests of commerce are also concerned in a permanent location at the bridge crossings. Such works as are required for these objects promote in the highest degree the navigability of this reach as a part of the general improvement of the Missouri River.

The Omaha reach extends from Florence to the Union Pacific Railway bridge, a distance of 10 miles. The general or average width between the shore lines at ordinary high water is 2,200 feet, or about 800 feet in excess of the average width across low water and low bars. This general width, however, does not represent the proper width of the river, or that really necessary for the flow of the stream, but rather the space over which the stream has wandered in recent years, or during the time required for bars to build up, become covered with vegetation, or a growth of willows and cottonwood, and be regarded as fast land. On the whole the changes due to the cut-off of 1877, just above the smelting works, have worked themselves out, and generally the course of the river and its stability have steadily improved up to the time of the October survey. Material changes from natural causes in the future are likely on the whole to be disadvantageous to improvement and highly detrimental to very important interests that are adjusting themselves to the course the river is now shaping.

The same favorable conditions do not obtain above or below. Above Florence the rapid cutting of the point of the bend on the east shore throws the stream lower down against the bluffs, and this action can not continue indefinitely without producing radical changes in the bend below Florence and altering the conditions at the northwestern dikes so as to greatly disturb the course below, the ultimate effect of all of which can not be foretold. This danger is by no means remote and the adoption of remedial measures should not be delayed. Below Omaha bridge such changes are occurring as indicate an uneasy disposition of the river, and between that point and Plattsmouth radical changes have occurred in recent years and are now occurring which, in the readjustment that must follow, are a serious menace to the Omaha reach.

In 1879, prior to the St. Mary's cut-off above the mouth of the Platte, the distance by the course of the river from the Omaha bridge to Plattsmouth bridge was 33¼ miles. In 1890 this distance had shortened to 24¼ miles, a decrease in length of about 27 per cent. During the same time no material change in length occurred in the river above from Omaha to Blair. The general experience with the river is that, notwithstanding cut-offs and wanderings, the length between fixed points, say 100 miles apart, will not in time show material alteration; in other words, that any shortening or other abrupt development is local and temporary. The river may wander and change its course, but the substantial length and average characteristics prevail. It is also believed that radical changes for the most part find their normal readjustment upstream.

These lessons of experience are in harmony with sound theory. It is obvious that the energy of the stream or the work which it can do is measured by the fall in a given distance. The fall per mile between Omaha and Plattsmouth has been increased by over one-third, and this surplus of energy will occasion wandering and spreading until sooner or later it works itself out in recovered length.

If the conditions favored the recovery of this length below Omaha, then the menace might not be serious to the Omaha reach. They do not appear favorable, and no judgment can be formed as to whether the river will or will not, in the early *future and in a brief season*, take on comparative stability in the region of present

instability with a transfer of slope and unstable conditions upstream. Should this occur, it is a question as to whether the Omaha reach could stand the strain of this surplus of energy until it had worked through to the river, above which is in much more susceptible condition. If the Omaha reach was well secured throughout in a fair course of moderate width, unquestionably the transfer of any undesirable conditions would be effected without material local damage.

The Omaha reach has not undergone recently other than the ordinary changes normal to the Missouri River as a result of flood seasons and the enormous amount of material shifted in its bed. At the present time the course, as a whole, is very favorable to further improvement. The bend below Florence is in proper shape for bank revetment, and certain dike work should be done on the left bank opposite and below Florence with a view to better controlling the direction of the stream into the bend and building up the low and broad bar which extends well down toward the northwestern dikes. The course at and above the northwestern dikes is favorable and should be made permanent in the present position. From this point down to the point of bend opposite Omaha the Council Bluffs, or left bank, has been revetted for a distance of 5 miles. This bed has a pocket which should be masked by a dike in order to insure stability of course below in the 2½ miles approaching Omaha.

Aside from the holding of the concave banks in their present position, the situation reduces to a control of the run into the bend at and below Florence, fixation of the river at the northwestern dikes, and a masking of the pocket above the new railway bridge. It would be well also if in training the river the bend above the smelting works and in the approach to the highway bridge could be corrected by a course farther out and with less curvature. Property interests would be materially served thereby and no doubt of themselves will in time bring about an easier course.

The question of allowable width is of importance, as a greater width than the proper requirements of the stream encourages wandering or change of channel and affords better opportunity for unstable conditions to be effective. From a pretty full consideration of the matter for the entire river and extending through several years 817 feet was fixed between Sioux City and Plattsmouth, and this may be safely adopted for any local requirement, and no doubt fixed banks that distance apart would be sufficient for the needs of the stream. This will seem to some who have not given due consideration to the matter of cross section and scour as affected by variations in stage of water, as very narrow, and the more conservative width of 1,000 feet at ruling points will be entirely safe and probably more expedient.

If the width is controlled and fixed at ruling points, it will usually take care of itself in the bends lying between or require slight aid in building up the bars and reducing the section to the normal width, and thus broad areas will be recovered from the wandering river course to become in time fast land.

On the other hand, should nothing farther be done to the Omaha reach, we may expect the following results:

(1) Changing conditions at Florence which will give rise to a shifting river in the bend below, with heavy bank erosion and frequent bar changes.

(2) A dropping down of the river's course below the northwestern dikes and such a direct assault on the revetment as would probably destroy the same and confuse the course of the river below.

(3) Shifting into and out of the pocket above the new bridge with a corresponding variation of the river in its approach to Omaha, and difficult control of the channel at the bridge site.

All these conditions are favorable as furnishing points of attack in case of complications arising by which the unstable conditions below Omaha should be transferred into the Omaha reach.

It may be confidently stated that the Omaha reach is in better shape at this time than for many years past, and that future conditions and changes will be detrimental and possibly result in instability of a radical character. For these reasons it should at once be fully secured in a proper course by works of a substantial character.

The map of the October survey shows clearly the place of the stream, the height of bars, and the course of the main banks. It bears out fully the conclusion that the ruling points are at Florence, the northwestern dikes, and at the pocket, 2½ miles above Omaha; the variations at these points being most largely responsible for the wandering channel and the varicose conditions below.

The matter of improvement will only be referred to in its general features, as the cost in advance of a knowledge of what the specific conditions will be when funds are actually available and the specific plan that should be applied at each locality can not be stated except in its limits.

The several works will be referred to in what seems their natural order of development as affecting the several interests to be guarded.

1. The pocket.—This will require a substantial system of dikes and cross dikes, by which the pocket is to be recovered and a new shore line established which will continue the bend above on a fair curve so that the river will follow the Iowa shore to the vicinity of the new bridge, about three-fourths of a mile below the pocket. The longitudinal dike for the new shore line will have a length of 4,000 to 5,000 feet and about an equal length of cross dike will be required, all estimated to cost $75,000.

2. Florence bend.—This should have a substantial revetment from Florence down for about 3 miles, and the present bank line seems to be very favorable. How far the situation may be changed by another high water can not be told. This work should all be carried out in one season and will cost about $120,000.

3. Northwestern dikes.—The river should be here trained and secured in a definite course so as to give any easy run into the bend below without direct assault on the banks. How permanent the revetment below the dikes may be, I can not say, but it would require to be of the most unusual character to withstand direct and changing assaults. The proper and easy control below demands a fixed course in this locality. Probably a mile will require training and securing at an estimated cost of $60,000, although this estimate is subject to many contingencies.

4. Florence dikes.—On the Iowa shore, opposite and below Florence, a mile of work may be judicious with a view to giving positive direction to the stream in Florence bend. The character and amount of work at this point is necessarily tentative in view of development above, but an estimate of $60,000 should be sufficient for probable requirements.

The foregoing aggregates $300,000. There may be incidental work which it would be judicious to undertake. These works, however, cover what is required to put the reach under control, though it might be well to increase the estimate to $350,000 to cover unforeseen contingencies.

Other works may properly follow, but as they will be more local and of a character to fix the banks in more detail and build up bars, and must be projected in view of results that may follow the works outlined, no estimate is submitted. They will all be beneficial in more definitely fixing and securing the river and in determining its width, and will be aided largely by the bank interests.

The question of what should be done in the short bend above the smelting works has been alluded to, but no project is submitted, as this locality does not appear to be specially menaced. No doubt a material change could be made which would be beneficial to the river and of advantage to property interest, and the depth of the underlying rock would seem to favor a correction. It is a matter requiring more and special study in view of the proximity to the two bridges.

Very respectfully submitted.

L. E. COOLEY,
Consulting Engineer

Mr. A. S. POTTER,
Omaha, Nebr.
CHICAGO, *November 19, 1892.*

MISSOURI RIVER NAVIGATION.—THE ENGINEERS' CLUB THINK THAT IT IS WHOLLY IMPRACTICABLE.

The Engineers' Club, at its meeting last night, discussed the practicability of navigating the Missouri River. The sentiment expressed was decidedly in favor of abandoning all attempts at navigation between St. Louis and Kansas City. The general opinion was that all money spent in improving the channel of the river might just as well be thrown into it, for as far as practical results were concerned, they held, the millions of dollars spent on the river have been wasted.

F. E. Sickles, inventor of the steam-steering gear now in use on all seagoing vessels, explained his plans for a steamboat which, he claimed, could be run at a profit on the Missouri. A 14-foot stroke would save steam and coal, and the boat could be run at one-fourth the cost of the Mason.

Robert Moore, of St. Louis, was asked to give his opinion of navigation on the Missouri. He said he thought it impracticable, and that navigation of even the Lower Mississippi in low-water seasons would soon have to be abandoned.

E. J. Farnsworth said that navigation of the Missouri might as well be given up first as last, for it was impracticable. Others spoke against any attempts to navigate the stream.

NOT A NAVIGABLE STREAM.—ENGINEERS CONCLUDE THE MISSOURI IS USELESS TO COMMERCE.—THEY DO NOT BELIEVE THE RIVER CAN BE MADE A PERMANENT HIGHWAY OF TRADE.—THE MASON THE LAST OF THE MISSOURI RIVER BOATS.

The Engineers' Club last night took rather a gloomy view of the future of Missouri River navigation. The recent sinking of the A. L. Mason was frequently referred to and members hinted very strongly that the Mason was the last of the Missouri River freight steamers.

Robert Moore, of St. Louis, one of the waterworks commissioners, who was a guest of the club, made the most discouraging remark of all. "You ask me to talk on Missouri River navigation," he said. "It reminds me very forcibly of the chapter on snakes in Ireland. There is no Missouri River navigation, and consequently I know you will excuse me from expressing my views on the subject.

Mr. Moore also said that the future prospects of river navigation on the Lower Mississippi are far from satisfactory. The railroads are doing the business.

The discussion was opened by F. E. Sickels, chief engineer of the waterworks company, who explained how a steamboat should be built. The greatest difficulty, he said, is the disposition of river boats to "wiggle." Most of them are so constructed that it is impossible to keep them in line. That was the trouble with the *Mason*. She would not answer her rudder at times. That explains how she comes to be at the bottom of the Mississippi River now. Another cause of trouble is that sand in the steam cuts the cylinders in the engine.

The speaker discussed minute details of steamboat building and explained some of his inventions. He is the inventor of the first device for steering large vessels by steam power. He went to London with his invention, and the story of his experiences kept the audience laughing. Shortly after his patent expired he said the device came into general use. It is now a necessary part of all large steamships.

E. I. Farnsworth expressed the belief that the Missouri River is not a navigable stream, and told how he had once shipped iron from Pittsburg, Pa., to Kansas City by steamboat. A short time afterward, he got a telegram stating that the boat had gone to the bottom, and his assessment was $875.

He found that he had been assessed because his iron could be raised out of the water and used and he must help pay damages to those whose wares were totally destroyed. He has not been a friend of river navigation since.

The club will meet January 17 to elect officers for another year. At the next monthly meeting John Donnelly will read a paper on street improvements and boulevards.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 194.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 29, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. DOLPH submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Whereas Elisha J. Edwards, a witness heretofore duly summoned by a select committee of the Senate, and being lawfully required to testify before said committee, has, as appears by the report of said committee, refused to answer questions propounded to him by said committee: Therefore,

Resolved, That the President of the Senate issue his warrant, in due form, under his hand and the seal of the Senate, directed to the Sergeant-at-Arms of the Senate, commanding him forthwith to arrest and bring to the bar of the Senate the body of said Edwards, to show cause why he should not be punished for contempt, and in the meantime to keep the said Edwards in custody to await the further order of the Senate.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 195.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 31, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. PEFFER submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on the Judiciary be, and it is hereby, instructed to inquire and report on the matters following:

First. Whether the Government of the United States, under and by virtue of an act of Congress, may be constitutionally authorized and empowered to take possession of and hold for public use—paying a reasonable and just compensation therefor—all the coal beds of the country.

Second. In case the committee shall be of opinion that such authority and power may be lawfully exercised, then the committee shall inquire touching equitable, economical, and expeditious methods of accomplishing the object sought, and report by bill or otherwise.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 196.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 31, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. HILL submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the proceedings of the special committee recently appointed to investigate the charges of bribery and other matters contained in certain newspapers be open to the public during the taking of evidence by such committee.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 31, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. DOLPH submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Whereas Elisha J. Edwards, a witness heretofore duly summoned by a select committee of the Senate, and being lawfully required to testify before said committee, has, as appears by the report of said committee, refused to answer questions propounded to him by said committee: Therefore,

Resolved, That the President of the Senate issue his warrant, in due form, under his hand and the seal of the Senate, directed to the Sergeant-at-Arms of the Senate, commanding him forthwith to arrest and bring to the bar of the Senate the body of said Edwards, to show cause why he should not be punished for contempt, and in the meantime to keep the said Edwards in custody to await the further order of the Senate.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 198.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

MAY 31, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations and ordered to be printed.

Mr. TURPIE presented the following

PETITION FOR THE ABROGATION OF THE EXTRADITION TREATY WITH RUSSIA.

[To accompany S. R. 90.]

To the President, Senate, and House of Representatives of the United States:

We, the undersigned citizens of the United States, respectfully submit to you this our petition, and request that notice be given to His Majesty, the Emperor of all the Russias, that the United States of America desire to terminate the extradition treaty, the ratifications of which were exchanged at St. Petersburg on April 21, 1893, for the following reasons:

We have specific objections to certain provisions of this treaty; but we have also general objections to any extradition treaty with the Emperor of all the Russias, which we will first present.

We heartily approve of treaties for extradition between States whose political conditions and criminal jurisprudence rest upon analogous bases, and which have confidence in each other's judicial institutions. But in the absence of such similarity and mutual confidence we believe that an extradition treaty is more likely to create ill feeling than to strengthen friendship, because the country by which the fugitives are surrendered will watch with jealousy and suspicion, and almost certain disapproval, any trial and punishment not conducted and executed according to its own methods; or else a like jealousy and suspicion will, in violation of the treaty, prevent a surrender.

Between the political institutions of the several nations which compose the civilized world there is no gap so great as that which separates those of Russia from those of the United States. The Government of the United States owes its being to armed resistance to lawful authority, undertaken in support of the political maxim that "taxation without representation is tyranny," and in the belief that it was better to destroy property and to shed blood than to submit to such tyranny. The Declaration of Independence declares:

> We hold these truths to be self-evident: That all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among those are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. *That to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or abolish it and to institute new government,* laying its foundation on such *principles and organizing its powers in such form* as to them shall seem most likely to effect *their safety and happiness.*

Our civil war was fought that "government of the people, by the people, for the people should not perish from the earth." In this country there is universal suffrage; the press is free; there is the writ of habeas corpus. No *ex post facto* law can be passed. The Constitution provides that—

In all criminal prosecutions the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, * * * and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor; and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.[1]

The Emperor of all the Russias is an absolute autocrat over more than 100,000,000 of people. His will is law. What he has made the law to-day he can unmake to-morrow.[2]

There is no writ of habeas corpus; the press is not free.

There is trial by jury, but none in many provinces.[3] Even where trial by jury is said to prevail, it is greatly restricted.

On May 9, 1878, crimes and offenses against the persons of public functionaries, committed during the performance of their duties, or by reason thereof, were *temporarily* transferred to special tribunals.[4] On July 7. 1889, many offenses, chiefly those committed by or against Government employés, were also withdrawn from trial by jury.[5] Crimes against the Emperor and against the Empire have never been submitted to a jury. Such offenses are tried by special tribunals.[6] An ukase of August 9, 1878, subjected them to the jurisdiction of courts-martial,[7] by which they are generally tried in secret chambers behind closed doors.[8] No political case in Russia has been publicly tried by a jury since 1878.[9]

Ever since August 14, 1881, many provinces[10] have been proclaimed to be in a *state of siege* (i. e., under martial law). The following provisions of Russian law prevail in such districts:

SEC. 14. In places which have been proclaimed in a state of siege the right and the duty of maintaining civil order and insuring public safety devolves upon governors-general. * * *

SEC. 15. Within the limits of such places the official authorities above specified shall have power to issue imperative regulations with regard to all matters which concern the preservation of public order and the maintenance of the safety of the State.

SEC. 16. Governors-general * * * are empowered also:

(*a*) To settle by administrative process all cases involving violation of the imperative regulations so issued; and governors-general are authorized, moreover, to commit such settlement to their subordinates, the governors of provinces and towns, and chiefs of police;

(*b*) To prohibit all public, social, and even private meetings or assemblies;

(*c*) To direct the closing of all commercial and industrial establishments, either temporarily or for the whole term of the state of siege; and

(*d*) To prohibit particular persons from residing in places where a state of siege prevails. (Remark: Banishment of such persons to a specified locality, even to their places of birth, shall be ordered only after preliminary consultation with the minister of the interior.)

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[1] U. S. Constitution, sixth amendment.

[2] M. Leroy-Beaulieu, l'Empire des Tsars et Les Russes Vol. II, p. 283.

[3] Siberia, Poland, Olonets, Vologda, Astrakhan, Ufa, Orenburg and the Caucasus. Forum, May, 1893. The Russian Extradition Treaty, p. 288.

[4] L'Empire des Tsars, Vol. II, p. 405.

[5] Forum, May, 1893, pp. 285, 286, note 1.

[6] L'Empire des Tsars, Vol. II, p. 405.

[7] L'Empire des Tsars, Vol. II, p. 406.

[8] Forum, May, 1893, p. 286, note 3.

[9] L'Empire des Tsars, Vol. II, p. 402.

[10] Those of St. Petersburg, Moscow, Kief, Kharkoff, Poltava, Volhynia, Podolia. Forum, May, 1893, p. 286-7.

SEC. 17. Governors-general * * * shall have power:

(*a*) To turn over to courts-martial for trial by martial law cases of crime which come within the purview of the civil law whenever, in their opinion, such a course is necessary in order to maintain public order and tranquillity; and

(*b*) *To require the trial behind closed doors of all cases whose public trial might cause excitement or disorder.*

SEC. 18:

(*b*) Cases of persons accused of political crime shall always be tried with closed doors. (Remark: The selection or appointment of counsel for the accused shall be made in accordance with the regulations set forth in the 'Collection of Military Laws,' Book XXIV, pp. 672-674.) These regulations provide that counsel for the prisoner must be selected by him, or appointed by the court from among the procurators, or prosecuting officers of the military district in which the trial takes place.[1]

Further to illustrate Russian criminal jurisprudence, we cite the following sections from the penal code:

SEC. 241. Every evil intention and criminal action against the life, the health, or the honor of the Lord Emperor; every design to remove him from the throne, to deprive him of his freedom and of his sovereignty, or to limit the rights thereof, or to do violence to his sacred person, shall subject the individual guilty thereof to deprivation of all civil rights and the penalty of death.

SEC. 242. Evil intention, in any of the above forms, shall be regarded as an actual crime, not only in the case where an attempt has already been made by the evil-doer to put his criminal intentions into execution; but even where, through a proposal to some one else to take part therein, or where for this object he has formed a plot or an association, or by entering into such a plot or association, or by oral or written declaration of his thoughts or suppositions with reference thereto, or in any other way, he has started any preparations for this purpose.

SEC. 243. All persons taking part in evil designs or criminal actions against the sacred person of the Lord Emperor, or the *rights of his autocratic power*, whether they be participators, aiders, instigators, abettors or permitters, and also all persons who, knowing of the evil design, shelter or conceal the evil-doers, and all persons who, knowing of the evil design or designers, and having power to give information with regard to them, fail to fulfill that duty, shall be subject to the same penalty of death.

SEC. 249. * * * A design to change the form of government or the order of succession to the throne as established by law; the organization of a conspiracy having these ends in view, or participation in any such conspiracy with knowledge of its aims, and the collection, possession, or distribution of weapons, or other preparations for rebellion, shall subject the persons guilty thereof, as well as their associates, aiders, abettors, or concealers, to deprivation of all civil rights and the penalty of death. All persons who have knowledge of such evil designs and of preparations to carry them into effect, and who have power to inform the Government thereof, but fail to do so, shall suffer the same punishment.

SEC. 250. * * * If the guilty persons have not manifested an intention to resort to violence, but have organized a society or association intended to attain, at a more or less remote time in the future, the objects set forth in section 249, or have joined a similar association, they shall be sentenced according to the degree of their participation in such an association, and, to the other circumstances of the case, either to from four to six years of penal servitude with deprivation of all civil rights or to colonization in Siberia, * * * or to imprisonment in a fortress from one year and four months to four years.

SEC. 252. For the composition and distribution of written or printed documents, and the making of public speeches wherein, though without any direct and open incitement to insurrection against the supreme authority, persons question or throw doubt upon the inviolability of the rights thereof, or which audaciously condemn the form of Government established by law, or the order of succession to the throne, shall be punished with deprivation of civil rights and exile to penal servitude of from four to six years. The same penalty shall be inflicted upon those convicted of intentional circulation of such compositions, and generally upon all those who have knowingly participated in such an offense. Those guilty of having composed documents of this character, but not convicted of circulation thereof with evil intent, are subject to the same sentence as for criminal intention, to wit, imprisonment in the fortress for a period of from eight months to one year and four months. Those who have in their possession such documents, and likewise are not convicted of circu-

[1] Journal of Civil and Criminal Law, St. Petersburg, 1881, department entitled Laws and Regulations of the Government, pp. 152-157. Translation by Mr. George Kennan, New York Times, April 2, 1893, and *see* L'Empire, etc., Vol. II., pp. 401, 407.

lation thereof with evil intent, if they should not prove that they had the same by special order or permission of the proper supreme authority, are subject to sentence therefor as for failure to inform of known crime or criminal intention, to wit, to imprisonment for a period of from seven days to three months, and may then be put under police surveillance for a period of from one to three years.

SEC. 128. The punishment fixed by law for failure to give information with regard to crime shall not extend to the failure of children to betray their parents, or their relatives in the direct ascending line, nor to the failure of parents to betray their children or other direct descendants, nor to man and wife, nor to brothers and sisters. * * * But the exemption of this section shall not apply to persons guilty of a failure to give information with regard to the political crimes described in sections 241 and 249.[1]

Russia stands to-day, as it has always stood, for despotism. On February 13, 1860, the Emperor, in a manifesto addressed to the great powers of Europe, protested against recognition of the sovereignty of peoples.[2]

In view of these facts, we think that the political conditions and criminal laws of these two countries differ too widely to permit any benefit from any extradition treaty made between them.

Thomas Jefferson, when Secretary of State, wrote:

The evil of protecting malefactors of every dye is sensibly felt here, as in other countries; but, *until a reformation of the criminal codes* of most nations, to deliver fugitives from them would be to become their accomplices; the former therefore is viewed as the lesser evil.[3]

Moreover, a great political change has been passing over the civilized world by which the government of nations has been, and is being, transferred from the hands of individuals, oligarchies, and classes to those of the people. The people of the United States have led this revolution. We believe that it greatly conduces to the happiness of mankind, and we hold it to be our duty to further such change by every peaceable and honorable means. In Russia such a change is beginning. It is wholly resisted by the Emperor and by the bureaucracy surrounding him. It is supported by a liberal party among the middle and upper classes. During the reign of the late Emperor Alexander II, and especially under the administration of Gen. Loris Melikof, this party seemed likely to accomplish a considerable alteration in the mode and methods of the Government. After the murder of that Emperor, and with the accession of his son, a reaction set in.

These adversaries of the Government do not represent the ignorance, but the intelligence of the nation; for the most part they come from the educated classes.[4] Their hopes of political reform are merely for institutions like unto those which we and our fathers have enjoyed for a hundred years.

While these two parties are striving to determine the political future of Russia, each according to its lights, we think that the people of the United States ought not to make any treaty of extradition with the present Government of Russia, for fear that it may be construed, and justly so, by the people of Russia, and by the people of the whole civilized world, as a token and pledge to that Government of our friendship and of our moral support.

We think this treaty in itself will be of no practical benefit to us, and, as to any possible diplomatic advantages to be got from the Russian Government, we do not think it honorable to obtain them at the expense of the Russian people.

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[1] Russian Penal Code, edition of 1885, as amended in 1886 and 1887, Part I, art. 3, "Of Offenses Against the Government," Chap. I, pp. 74–80, *Ib.*, p. 33.

[2] Lorimer's Law of Nations, Vol. II, p. 589.

[3] Letter to Mr. Genet, the French minister, dated September 12, 1793 (American State Papers, Vol. I, p. 176).

[4] *L'Empire des Tsars*, vol. I, Book 6, chap. 3, vol. II, pp. 522, 523.

Such are our general objections to any extradition treaty with the present Russian Government.

We think that our specific objections to the existing treaty will be more readily appreciated if we first state the practice in extradition proceedings in this country. It is as follows: The Russian consul, or other authorized agent of the Russian Government,[1] presents to the proper United States magistrate an affidavit, which may be made upon information and belief,[2] charging the fugitive with some extraditable offense; a warrant is then issued for his arrest.[3] This warrant runs throughout the United States.[4] A fugitive, therefore, may be arrested in California and taken to New York. He is then brought before the magistrate for a hearing. The prosecutor may present copies of depositions taken in Russia and certified by the U. S. consul there, to be properly and legally authenticated so as to entitle them to be received as evidence of criminality by the tribunals in Russia.[5] These depositions have the same force that the testimony of the deponents would have if they were personally present before the magistrate.[6] But there can be, of course, no cross-examination. The prosecutor may also produce his witnesses,[7] and must prove the identity of the fugitive.[8] The accused is allowed to produce witnesses if he can, but he is not allowed to introduce certified documents or depositions taken abroad.[9] He may testify in his own defense, subject to being committed for contempt or to having his testimony stricken out, in the discretion of the magistrate, if he refuses to answer proper cross-examination. It will be seen that the prosecutor has two great advantages: he need only make out a case of probable guilt; he may use depositions taken in Russia; whereas the fugitives may not. The only question before the magistrate, after he has decided the identity of the fugitive and that the offense is extraditable, is whether the prosecutor has made out "a prima facie case,"[10] that is, whether there is probable cause to believe the fugitive guilty;[11] or, in other words, such a likelihood of guilt as would justify committing a man for trial here.[12] If the magistrate deems the evidence sufficient to sustain the charge under the provisions of the treaty, he certifies that fact, together with a copy of all the testimony taken before him, to the Secretary of State, and commits the fugitive to prison to await action by the State Department upon a requisition from the Russian Government.[13] These proceedings may be reviewed by a U. S. judge under a writ of habeas corpus; but upon such a review the judge has merely to decide matters of law,[14] and has no jurisdiction to review the decision of the magistrate as to the sufficiency and weight of the evidence.[15]

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[1] Benson *v.* McMahon, 127 U. S., 457; Moore's Rep. on Extradition, Mr. Bayard to Mr. Parkhurst, pp. 9–11; Moore on Ex., sec. 220.

[2] Mr. Bayard to Mr. Parkhurst, *supra*, p. 10; Moore on Ex., sec. 285.

[3] U. S. R. S., sec. 5270.

[4] Moore on Extradition, sec. 304.

[5] U. S. St., vol. 22, 1882, chap. 378, sec. 5, p. 216; *In re* Luis Oteiza y Cortes, 136 U. S., 330.

[6] *In re* Farez, 7 Blatchford, 345, p. 351.

[7] U. S. R. S., sec. 5270.

[8] Moore on Ex., sec. 342.

[9] *In re* Luis Oteiza y Cortes, 136 U. S., 330; *In re* Wadge, 15 Fed. Rep., 864.

[10] *In re* Behrendt, 22 Fed. Rep., 699.

[11] *In re* Farez, 7 Blatch., 345, pp. 358–9.

[12] Treaty, Art. 1; Benson *v.* McMahon, 127 U. S. 457, p. 463.

[13] U. S. R. S., sec. 5270. This period is limited to two months. Sec. 5273.

[14] *In re* Luis Oteiza y Cortes, 136 U. S., 330; Benson *v.* McMahon, 127 U. S. 457.

[15] *In re* Stupp, 12 Blatch. 501; *In re* Wadge, 16 Fed. Rep., 332; *In re* Luis Oteiza y Cortes, *supra*; Moore on Ex. Sec. 354.

We object specifically to the provisions of the extradition treaty as follows:

We object to Article I of the treaty, in that it provides that a fugitive shall be surrendered to the Russian Government upon "such evidence of criminality" as would justify our magistrates in committing him for trial here. We are not willing to surrender fugitives for trial in Russia, where they may be tried by court-martial, upon no greater evidence of guilt than is necessary to warrant a commitment here, where, upon trial, prisoners are assumed to be innocent and are surrounded by every protection.

We object to Article II of the treaty, section 5, in that it declares that among the extraditable offenses shall be included, "Forgery; and the utterance of forged papers, including public, sovereign, or governmental acts."

Our reasons are that under the police regulations of the Russian Government it is illegal and may be difficult for any man to leave Russia without a passport. If the Government will not give him a passport, he must forge one. Wherefore, (*a*) all persons who have committed offenses of any kind which are not extraditable may be reclaimed for forging a passport, and though consistently with the terms of the treaty they may be punished only for the forgery, yet there is no restriction upon the arbitrary power of the Russian Government to inflict for the *forgery* whatever measure of punishment it pleases, even to an extent that might seem to include the unextraditable offense. The United States Government has no right to complain if a man who has forged a passport be sentenced to a Siberian prison for life.

(*b*) Such punishment might be inflicted upon any man, otherwise innocent, who, upon the refusal of the Government to give him a passport, had forged one merely because he wished to emigrate to this country for the reason that he and his family were starving at home. We do not think it right for us to treat such an emigrant as a common criminal, especially in view of the fact that the United States has declared by act of Congress that the "right of expatriation is a natural and inherent right of all people," * * * and "that any * * * opinion * * * which questions" it is "inconsistent with the fundamental principles of this Government."[1]

(*c*) We fear that some over-zealous police officials, with or without the knowledge of the Russian Government, might seek to reclaim a political offender or suspect, on the ground that he had committed forgery. If the fugitive should endeavor to invoke the protection of the clause, that surrender shall not take place when "it is made to appear that extradition is sought with a view to try or punish the person demanded for an offense of a political character" (Treaty, Art. III), he, perhaps, having come over on the last steamer, knowing nobody, without power to take depositions, and with his witnesses all in Russia, would have to prove that he was a political offender or suspect in face of a flat contradiction by that Government which he claimed to have offended. He would find also grave objections to such an attempt. It would be liable to be interpreted as an admission of the forgery; and, moreover, he would be subjected to a cross-examination by the prosecuting counsel as to the particulars of his offense, or as to the cause for suspicion, which might incriminate friends at home, or, if he should

[1] U. S. St. (1868), vol. 15, chap. 249, p. 223. See also Opinions of Attorneys-General, vol. 9, p. 356.

refuse to answer, he might be committed for contempt or his testimony might be stricken out.

We doubt the expediency of Article III, in that it provides that "an attempt against the life of the head of either Government, or against that of any member of his family, when such an attempt comprises the act either of murder, or assassination, or of poisoning, or of accessoriship thereto, shall not be considered a political offense, or an act connected with such an offense.

We hold assassination to be very wicked, yet we deem this clause inexpedient.

In Russia a great difference is made between political offenders and common criminals. Capital punishment has been abolished for common crimes but remains for political offences.[1] Common criminals are tried by a jury, but political offenders are tried by special tribunals, without a jury, and generally in secret by a court-martial. Therefore, we think that we ought not to agree that political offenders or suspects shall be treated as common criminals for the purpose of extradition when they are not to be treated as such for the purposes of trial and punishment.

Moreover, in our opinion, a political prosecution in Russia does not constitute a fair trial, and it is better that the guilty go free than that the innocent should be punished.

(*b*) This clause is unusual. Out of our thirty-four extradition treaties, it is only included in those with Belgium and Luxembourg;[2] in both of these States there is a free press and an independent judiciary.[3]

There is no such clause in any of the treaties made by Great Britain[4] or by Switzerland.[5]

But the Emperor of Russia has made treaties containing such a clause with the Emperor of Austria, with the King of the Netherlands, with the Kings of Spain, Belgium, and Bavaria. Napoleon III, Emperor of France, made such treaties with the Kings of Belgium and Bavaria, and with other kings and princes.[6] Emperors and kings naturally make such treaties. They seek security in their criminal laws, but the United States occupy a different position.

We object to Article VIII, in that it provides that any article in the possession of the fugitive that may serve to convict shall, if the demand for extradition be granted, be delivered to the authorities of the demanding government, even where, owing to the death or escape of the fugitive, extradition can not take place.

We fear that during the present political discontent in Russia, under this clause, the Russian Government may obtain information of matters purely political, which may incriminate friends and relations of the fugitive at home.

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[1] L'Empire des Tsars, Vol. II, pp. 424-434.

[2] Moore's Report on Extradition (1889). Moore on Extradition, sec. 207.

[3] Constitution de la Belgique, secs. 18 and 98, etc.; Des Staatsrecht des Grossherzogthums Luxemburg, pp. 205, 206. Marquardsen (1892).

[4] Clarke's Law of Extradition, Appendix, Extradition Act of 1870, 33 and 34 Vict. C., 52; *also see* Treaties.

[5] *See* Treaties, Kirchner Extradition, p. 967.

[6] For such treaties between Russia and Austria, Belgium, Spain, Bavaria, the Netherlands, and Hesse-Darmstadt, respectively, *see* Kirchner Extradition, pp. 904, 318, 922, 914, 934, and 929. For agreement between Russia and Germany, *see* Lowe's Life of Bismarck, vol. 2, pp. 19 and 121. For treaties between Napoleon III and Belgium, Parma, Norway and Sweden, the Netherlands, and Bavaria, respectively, *see* Blondel Ex., pp. 187, 188, 276; Billot L'Ex., pp. 558, 543; Kirchner, Ex., p. 508.

We further fear that it will be impossible for our magistrates to arrive at a correct conclusion as to the truth of the depositions submitted to them by the Russian authorities. And, bearing in mind the different notions as to the rights of personal liberty that prevail in the two countries, we think it will be very difficult for our Government to ascertain what may become of fugitives surrendered to Russia, or to learn whether the stipulations of the treaty intended as safeguards for them receive the same interpretation from the Russian Government that we put upon them.

We observe that, at the Congress of International Law held at Lausanne, Prof. Lamnasch, of the University of Vienna, put this question to the members and associates:

> Ought an extradited person to be permitted to avail himself of the circumstance that the treaty or act, in virtue of which he was delivered up, does not permit him to be prosecuted or punished for an act other than that which formed the ground of his surrender?

And that, after the members from Great Britain, Germany, Belgium, and France replied that by their respective laws he might (with certain modifications as to France),[1] the Russian member, M. Bergbohm, did not furnish very precise responses, stating his impression to be that the Russian tribunals follow implicitly in such a case the orders given by the minister of justice and of foreign affairs.[2]

Finally, remembering what the United States have achieved in the world, and at what cost; what the Russian Government has been and is; and in view of the criminal jurisprudence in Russia, its arbitrary trials and severe penalties; in view of the insufficiency of safeguards made of paper, and of our distrust of the Russian police and detective agents, lest they should swear falsely from overzeal to serve their Government; and more particularly having before us the fear that this treaty may be regarded as a token of sympathy with the present Government of Russia in its endeavor to repress all civil liberty, we earnestly and respectfully petition to have notice of abrogation given as soon as may conveniently be done.

Name.	Address.	Name.	Address.
Francis C. Barlow	34 Wall st., New York, N. Y.	Thos. W. Higginson	25 Buckingham st., Cambridge, Mass.
John Bigelow	21 Gramercy Park, New York, N. Y.	Edwin D. Mead	Boston, Mass.
W. D. Howells	40 West Fifty-ninth st., New York, N. Y.	Robert Treat Paine	Do.
Morris K. Jessup	44 Pine st., New York, N. Y.	N. S. Shaler	25 Quincy st., Cambridge, Mass.
Henry A. Oakley	62 William st., New York, N. Y.	Darwin E. Ware	53 Devonshire st., Boston, Mass.
Carl Schurz	New York, N. Y.	Moses Williams	18 P. O. Square, Boston, Mass.
Charles Scribner	12 East Thirty-eighth st., New York, N. Y.	Charles F. Bishop	Buffalo, N. Y.
Oscar S. Straus	42 Warren st., New York, N. Y.	A. D. Bissell	Do.
Everett P. Wheeler	45 William st., New York, N. Y.	Wm. F. Creed	Do.
Felix Adler	123 East Sixtieth st., New York, N. Y.	Wm. C. Cornwell	Do.
Chas. Gordon Ames	Boston, Mass.	George V. Forman	Do.
Edward Atkinson	Do.	F. Aug. Georges	Do.
John Fiske	22 Berkeley st., Cambridge, Mass.	Robert K. Hefford	Do.
Francis J. Garrison	4 Park st., Boston, Mass.	Josiah Jewett	Do.
George A. Gordon	645 Boylston st., Boston, Mass.	Loran L. Lewis	Do.
		Adelbert Moot	Do.
		Pascal P. Pratt	Do.
		James H. Putnam	Do.
		G. B. Rich	Do.
		J. Richmond	Do.
		Sherman S. Rogers	Do.

[1] Such also is our law (U. S. *v.* Rauscher, 119 U. S., 407) and the law in Switzerland, Moore on Ex., sec. 513.

[2] Moore on Extra., sec. 165, Note.

Name.	Address.	Name.	Address.
Spalding	Buffalo, N. Y.	Francis Fisher Kane	Philadelphia, Pa.
[. Walker	Do.	A. J. Kynett	Do.
L. Williams	Do.	Charles A. Lagen...	Do.
h R. Adams	Philadelphia, Pa.	Charles C. Lister....	Do.
nas W. Barlow..	Do.	Wm. N. McVickar ..	Do.
T. Beckley	Do.	C. W. McKechan....	Do.
'k L. Breitinger.	Do.	Joseph May	Do.
lwin Brown.....	Do.	Geo. Gluyas Mercer.	Do.
pton L. Carson..	Do.	William J. Nichols..	Do.
P. Croasdale ...	Do.	Chas. A. Richards..	Do.
dore M. Elting..	Do.	William M. Salter...	Do.
Field.....	Do.	H. L. Wayland.....	Do.
lo Heilprin.....	Do.	Herbert Welsh	Do.
el B. Huey	Do.	Thos. Earle White..	Do.
itt Hulburd.....	Do.	James S. Williams..	Do.
vering Jones....	Do.		

'he gentlemen whose names are signed to this petition, either signed 1 person or personally authorized me to sign it in their names.

HENRY D. SEDGWICK, JR.,

Secretary Abrogation Society, 44 Cedar Street, New York City

[EW YORK, *April 28, 1894.*

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 199.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES

JUNE 1, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. CALL submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That a special committee of five Senators be appointed by the President of the Senate, who shall be charged with the duty of investigating the subject of organized efforts of corporations to control the election of members of the State legislatures and of members of Congress, and to influence the legislation of Congress; also to investigate and report to the Senate whether corrupt means, such as bribery, free transportation, the subsidizing of newspapers, or the establishment of newspapers to be published in their interest, and distributed gratuitously through the mails for the purpose of affecting public opinion in respect to the official actions of Senators and Representatives; also to inquire and report to the Senate whether the existence of corporate organizations for the purposes of influencing and controlling the election of members of the Senate and House of Representatives is consistent with the preservation of the Republic of the United States and the rights and liberties of the people.

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IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JUNE 2, 1894.—Ordered to be reprinted as corrected.

Mr. CALL submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That a special committee of five Senators be appointed by the President of the Senate, who shall be charged with the duty of investigating the subject of organized efforts of corporations to control the election of members of the State legislatures and of members of Congress, and to influence the legislation of Congress; also to investigate and report to the Senate whether corrupt means, such as bribery, free transportation, the subsidizing of newspapers, or the establishment of newspapers to be published in their interest, and distributed gratuitously through the mails for the purpose of affecting public opinion in respect to the official actions of Senators and Representatives, have been or are being used by them; also to inquire and report to the Senate whether the existence of corporate organization for the purposes of influencing and controlling the election of members of the Senate and House of Representatives is consistent with the preservation of the Republic of the United States and the rights and liberties of the people, and to report by bill, or otherwise, such legislation as may be expedient or necessary for the safety of the Republic and the protection of the people.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 201.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JUNE 4, 1894.—Laid on the table and ordered to be printed.

Mr. ALLISON presented the following

MEMORIAL OF THE SALT MANUFACTURERS OF THE UNITED STATES TO THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES ASKING THAT NO REDUCTION SHALL BE MADE IN THE DUTIES ON SALT.

To the honorable, the Senate of the United States:

The representatives of the salt industry of the United States feel sure that a perusal of our brief memorial will convince the members of your honorable body of the justice of our request that a duty be retained on salt.

To demonstrate the necessity and the advisability of so doing, we propose to herein briefly prove three general facts.

First. That since the establishing of a duty sufficient to enable the American manufacturer of salt to compete successfully with the foreigner, prices have dropped to one-fifth of what they were in 1860; that salt is now the cheapest manufactured article we have (10 pounds for 1 cent for common salt), and these low prices will continue as long as domestic competition continues.

Second. That owing to the ballast freight rates enabling the British manufacturer to transport his salt from Liverpool to the United States for less than one-fourth the freight from any domestic works to the coast, the removal of the whole duty on salt must result in the severe crippling of all and the closing up of the large majority of the salt works in the eastern part of the United States.

Third. That the existing duty is not an appreciable tax on anyone, and its removal would not result in the prices to the ordinary consumer being lowered a particle.

All tons referred to in this paper are tons of 2,240 pounds, except when otherwise stated.

To take up our first statement:

In 1860 there was practically no duty on salt, and the average price was about $3 per barrel.

The Michigan salt industry was established this year, and in 1862 a duty of 18 cents per 100 pounds bulk and 24 cents in sacks was imposed.

The price steadily dropped as domestic competition increased, and in 1866 the average selling price was $1.80 per barrel.

In 1872 the duty was reduced to the present rate of 8 cents per 100 pounds in bulk and 12 cents per 100 pounds in packages.

In 1883 the selling price was reduced to 81 cents per barrel on account of the competition arising from the development of the salt fields in western New York.

Improvement in the methods of manufacture, and the increasing competition, have steadily reduced the price until in 1893 the average selling price at the works of common salt was not over 53 cents per barrel of 280 pounds, and this price includes the barrel, which costs about 25 cents.

In bulk the selling price at the works is $2 per ton of 2,000 pounds, equal to *10 pounds for 1 cent.*

Until ten years ago our coast cities and towns, and those adjacent thereto, were very largely dependent upon foreign sources for their supply of salt.

In 1884 the importations of salt amounted to 454,488 tons, and the total American output 814,367 tons. Of the latter amount New York State produced 250,000 tons, and was the main domestic source of supply of the Eastern, Middle, and South Atlantic States.

Domestic common salt then sold in New York City for about $5.50 per ton, and Liverpool common for about $6.50 per ton, and the same salts are now sold for $4.25 and $5, a decrease in price of 23 per cent.

In 1884 the domestic manufacturers did not make a salt altogether satisfactory to the salters of hides, and this trade had to pay from $8.40 to $8.96 per ton for the imported coarse salt.

In 1887 a salt was made in this country that was suitable for the hide trade and was sold for $6 per ton. When it was found that this salt gave entire satisfaction for hides, the importers met the reduced figures and prices on both grades were reduced to $5.50. It remained at this price until domestic competition further reduced the price of this grade to $4.50.

The development of the American salt industry in New York has therefore effected a saving to the beef trade of nearly 50 per cent on the cost of their coarse salt.

In 1883 England exported to this country 239,459 tons and the selling price on common salt was 81 cents per barrel.

In 1893 England exported to this country 60,056 tons and the selling price was 53 cents per barrel.

The selling prices on all grades of salt in this country have been reduced in direct proportion as the importations of competing grades have been decreased.

The salt works and mines in New York, Michigan, Kansas, Ohio, West Virginia, and Louisiana alone, if steadily worked ten hours per day, could produce ten times the amount of salt consumed in the United States.

This enormous capacity of production and the ease with which new works can be established make it impossible that prices can be advanced to yield more than a very moderate profit on the actual capital invested.

In confirmation of our second statement that the removal of the whole duty on salt would close up a large majority of the salt works in the eastern part of the United States:

In the year 1892 the States of New York and Louisiana, whose chief markets are the coast and tributary points, produced nearly two-fifths of the entire production of the United States.

For many years foreign producers of salt have enjoyed the benefit of having their goods brought to this country as ballast at nominal rates of freight.

IMPORTED SALT.

The average cost to the importer of foreign salts landed in New York, Boston, Philadelphia, or Savannah, duty paid, is about as follows:

Liverpool ground, $4.70 to $5 per ton 2,240 pounds.

West Indies, $4.95 to $5.60 per ton 2,240 pounds.

Mediterranean, $3.96 to $4.48 per ton 2,240 pounds.

Deducting the present duty of 8 cents per 100 pounds, or $1.78 per ton, as proposed in the Wilson bill, the cost of imported salt would be reduced to, say:

Liverpool ground, $2.92 to $3.22 per ton.

West Indies, $3.16 to $3.81 per ton.

Mediterranean, $2.13 to $2.69 per ton.

As the freight rate on domestic salt from the western New York district is $2.25 per ton to New York and Philadelphia, $2.69 to Boston, and $4.50 to Savannah it is evident that the American manufacturer must lose his coast trade.

Salt can be brought from Liverpool to New York for, say, 48 cents per ton, and as this amount includes discharging, it can, without any expense, be loaded on a canal boat, and during most of the canal season carried to Buffalo for 55 cents per ton. Therefore, for $1.03 per gross ton, English salt can be carried from Liverpool to Buffalo. Our lowest freight to Buffalo is 59 cents per ton, and as all our Western shipments are made via this port on salt shipped to Cleveland, Chicago, St. Louis, Kansas City, and all Western points, we would have an advantage in freight of only 44 cents per ton.

With domestic salt practically excluded from the sea coast, the slight advantage of, say, 44 cents per ton, is gained in shipments to Buffalo and the West is entirely inadequate to enable us to compete successfully with the foreign producer, who will be willing to sell his surplus salt in the Western markets without profit or even at a small loss.

Salt is imported to this country from three general sections: From England, from the West Indies, and from the Mediterranean ports.

First. Salt from England.

England exports to this country nearly all grades of salt, the principal being "rock" salt, "common" evaporated salt, and the finer grades of dairy and table salt known as "factory filled" and "dairy."

The principal salt works in England are in Cheshire, on the river Weaver, about 15 miles from Liverpool, and the salt is transported by water to Liverpool by the salt companies on their own lighters at very small expense.

The ninth (last) edition of the Encyclopædia Britannica, published in 1888, under heading of salt (Vol. XXI, p. 233) says, speaking of the Cheshire district:

> The price of salt at the works may be said to range from 4*s.* 6*d.* to 6*s.* per ton, the former being less than the cost price as given before the British parliamentary commission in 1881. It is there stated to be: Brine, 6*d.*; labor, 10*d.*; fuel, 3*s.*; rent, interest, etc., 1*s.*; total, 5*s.* 4*d.* Thus the margin of profit is but small, almost the only gain being said to accrue from the lightering, most of the salt manufacturers doing the carriage in their own flats.

Vessels from Liverpool for United States ports want salt for ballast, and bring it at a nominal rate of freight. The highest freight for sailing vessel we have heard of from Liverpool to New York during the last two years is 3*s.* 6*d.* per ton. Many cargoes have come for 1*s.*, and the average is about 2*s.*, or 48 cents, per ton of 2,240 pounds. (*See* appendix, letter from Vernon H. Brown & Co.; letter from D. B. Dearborn.)

Small lots of sacked salt by steamer pay as high as 7*s.* 6*d.*, but the regular liners are generally ready to take it for 5*s.* and the "tramp" steamers for considerably less.

Freights to Boston are much lower than to New York, steamers taking salt right along for 1*s.* per ton, and large quantities have, during the past year, been carried from Liverpool to Boston by steamer free of freight. (*See* appendix, letter from Cunard Steamship Company.)

Sailing rates from Liverpool to Philadelphia are a little higher, averaging about 2*s.* 6*d.* per ton (60 cents).

The average freight rates for the last four years were about as follows (per ton of 2,240 pounds):

Steamer.

	s.	d.		s.	d.
New York	5	0	Boston	1	6
Baltimore	4	6	Philadelphia	6	10
New Orleans	3	0	Savannah	4	3
Wilmington	3	9	Norfolk	3	0

Sail.

New York	2	0	Philadelphia	2	6
San Francisco	12	6	Savannah	2	0

When the present rate of duty was enacted in 1872, the average sailing freight rates from Liverpool to our North Atlantic ports were 15*s.* ($3.66) per ton, and the steam rates ranged from 18*s.* to 21*s.* ($4.40 to $5.12).

These freight rates amounted to an additional protection to domestic salt.

Messrs. F. D. Moulton & Co., the American agents of the British Salt Union, recently presented a printed statement called "Salt and the tariff" to the Committee on Ways and Means. We quote from this regarding price of common salt.

COMMON SALT.

The grade known as "common salt" in Liverpool, and as "common" or "Liverpool ground" here, corresponds to the American "common fine," and is sometimes known as "barrel" salt. Both are distinguished from the "factory filled" in that they are not kiln-dried or sifted, but are simply allowed to drain when raked from the pans, thus retaining a large percentage of moisture and rendered unfit for finer purposes. They are used for salting hides, feeding cattle, salting some meats, in the manufacture of pickles of all kinds, soap, chemicals, etc.

Cost of common salt at seaports.

		s.	d.
Price of common salt in Liverpool, per ton of 2,240 pounds, in bulk		10	0
Average sail freight to New York in 1893		2	3
		12	3
Or say (exchange $4.88)			$3.00
Insurance, per ton			.05
Five per cent fall short when imported in bulk			.15
Duty, 8 cents per 100 pounds			1.79
Cost of English salt in New York			4.99
American common fine, at works, per ton of 2,240 pounds	$2.25		
Freight to New York, 10 cents per 100 pounds	2.25		
			4.50
In favor of American salt			.49

Same, without duty.

American salt, delivered in New York	$4.50
Without duty, English salt, delivered in New York	3.20
Difference of favor English salt, per ton	1.30

Referring to the statement of Messrs. Moulton & Co.:

The "fall short" and "insurance" being charges common to both domestic and imported salts, should not be considered, and the difference in favor of English salt, without duty, is nearer $1.40 than $1.30 per ton, as claimed by Messrs. Moulton & Co. They quote the price of their common salt as 10*s.* free on board Liverpool.

We find by referring to Falk's circular of January 4, 1888, before the formation of the British Salt Union, that common salt was quoted at 7*s.* per ton free on board Liverpool. After the formation of the union in 1889 common salt was advanced in price, and was quoted in Falk's circulars of that year, "for shipment to America, 11*s.*, 6*d.*; for shipment to Australia, 13*s.* 6*d.*" Were the English union to sell now at the prices of 1888 and obtain the freight rates that have existed for several years, they could land their "common" salt in New York City, without duty, for 9*s.*, or $2.20 per ton. As our freight rate from the New York salt fields to New York City is $2.25 per ton, how could we compete with this salt?

The steam freight to Boston being but 1*s.* per ton, the imported "common" salt could be sold there for 8*s.*, or $1.96 per ton, while the freight alone on domestic salt is $2.69.

This grade would answer the purpose for which three-fifths of the salt made in this country is used.

We again quote from Moulton's statement:

> The cost of lump rock salt in Liverpool is lower than it has been for some years, namely, free on board vessel, 16*s.* per ton.

Referring to Falk's price lists of 1888 (see appendix) we find picked lump rock quoted at 9*s.* 6*d.* free on board Liverpool.

Based on this cost the salt could be landed in New York: Salt free on board Liverpool, 9*s.* 6*d.* per ton; freight to New York, 2*s.*; a total of 11*s.* 6*d.* per ton, equal to $2.80 per ton, instead of $5.88, as represented by Moulton & Co.

In Boston the lump salt could be landed for $2.56 per ton.

No better proof is required than the figures given in Messrs. Moulton & Co.'s circular to demonstrate that at all of our Atlantic seaports and at such points as are reached therefrom by water American salt could not be sold if foreign salt is admitted free.

Seventy per cent in value of the dutiable salt imported to the United States in 1892 was shipped by one company, the British Salt Union, and it is in the interest of this trust that the circular is issued.

Large quantities of salt for Chicago, Duluth, and other ports on the Great Lakes, are shipped on a through bill of lading from Liverpool, are brought by steamer to Montreal, and thence via Canadian railways and lake transportation to destination.

Second. West Indies.

The second general section from which salt comes to the United States is the West Indies, including Turks Island, St. Martens, Curaçoa, etc. The salt from this section is "solar-evaporated" sea salt—i. e., salt made from sea-water by evaporating it by the natural heat of the sun. This process of salt-making can not be profitably used in this climate, but in the hot southern latitudes, assisted by labor which costs

but a few cents a day, salt can be made by this method for about 75 cents a ton.

During the year 1893 Turks Island salt was sold in New York, delivered at buyers' wharf, for 16 cents per bushel, including the duty of, say, 6 cents per bushel (or 8 cents per 100 pounds), thus showing that with duty entirely removed it could be sold for 10 cents per bushel.

Curacoa salt has been sold alongside buyers' wharf during 1893 at 18 cents per bushel, and we can to-day purchase it from a dealer in New York at 19 cents per bushel of 80 pounds in store, all expenses paid.

Based on above prices, without duty, the salt could be sold: Turks Island, at $3.20 per ton; Curacoa, at $3.64 per ton.

A part of the salt coming here from the West Indies is brought by the owners of vessels to provide the vessel with ballast and sold here for "vessel's account." The difference between cost and selling prices, minus the duty, is credited as freight. This ranges from 4 to 7 cents per bushel, the average being about 6 cents per bushel, equal to $1.68 per ton.

With the duty removed the owners of vessels would venture in this direction to a much larger extent than at present, and, not finding a ready purchaser on arriving at any of our seaports, would, rather than put the salt in store, offer it at prices that would demoralize the market, to the great detriment of all depending upon it as an outlet for a constant production.

Third. Spanish and Mediterranean ports.

The third section includes Spanish and Mediterranean ports. The methods of manufacture there are the same used in the West Indies, and labor but little higher. The average freight rate from the Spanish ports is about 4*s*. per ton, and from Mediterranean ports from 1*s*. to 2*s*. higher.

Italian vessels can easily afford to bring salt from the Mediterranean freight free, as their Government pays them a handsome subsidy, which they do not receive unless they carry a merchantable cargo. This salt has been sold in New York City, duty paid, for $4 per ton.

The argument has been made that the greater part of the salt imported has to be stored, and 50 cents per ton is thereby added to the cost. It is true that a part of many cargoes is stored, but it is generally the case that the greater part of the cargo is sold before the vessel arrives, and is either taken by the purchaser direct from the vessel's side or stored for his account and accommodation. Storage charges are common to both importer and domestic dealer, as no salt-dealer can conduct a business of any extent without constantly carrying a stock at the principal points of consumption and distribution.

Salt imported by the regular steamers is seldom, if ever, stored, but is distributed direct from the dock.

DOMESTIC SALT.

The salt-producing States in this country are Michigan, New York, Kansas, Louisiana, Ohio, Virginia, West Virginia, Texas, California, Nevada, Utah, and Illinois.

COST OF MANUFACTURE.

The comparative cost of manufacture of salt in this country and in England involves a comparison of the original cost of the plant, the cost of repairs, the fuel used for evaporating the brine, and the labor employed in raking or lifting the salt from the pans and grainers and putting it in the bins.

The first cost of a salt plant in America is about double that of an English plant of the same capacity, due to the greater cost of the materials which enter into their construction, and to the higher wages received by the masons, carpenters, and laborers employed in the work. Much of the machinery is liable to rapid deterioration, and the large iron pans costing, say, $2,000 for a pan 100 by 30 feet in size, will require annually repairs amounting to fully 20 per cent of their prime cost. These repairs are relatively more expensive than they would be in England.

All of the boiled salts, that is, the grades known as "common" and "fine" (factory filled) necessitate the use of large quantities of coal and the employment of much labor.

Coal is cheaper in England than here, and the rate of wages paid in England is about one half that which is paid in America for similar services. By the most improved methods of evaporating brine, a half ton of coal is required for each ton of salt produced.

The average price of fuel at the salt works in western New York is $1.80 per ton, and therefore the fuel for a ton of salt costs 90 cents.

The rate of wages paid in western New York to "rakers" and "lifters" of salt is $1.50 per day, and the cost of labor on 1 ton of common salt will average $1.18.

A ton of common salt therefore costs, for fuel and labor of raking and and putting in bin, $2.08.

This does not include the expense of packing and putting on cars and the expenses of administration.

The finer grades of "table," "dairy," etc., requires a further expenditure of fuel and labor to dry, grind, screen, and fit it for its intended purpose.

The cost of mining salt is made up of labor, fuel, and explosives.

Rock salt is composed of crystals, and is not a homogeneous mass; the effect of a blast being to disintegrate rather than dislodge any considerable quantity, consequently the effectiveness of a blast is lost.

The very frequent intervals at which holes must be drilled entails a large amount of labor, and necessitates the use of a larger quantity of dynamite than would be required to blast granite.

The cost of explosives exceeds 20 cents per ton of salt mined, and the fuel and labor necessary to mine and raise the crude salt to the surface (1,000 to 1,600 feet), crush, screen, grade, pick, and load the same, brings the cost to $1.60 per ton.

No account is taken herein of the expenses selling and marketing the product.

NEW YORK.

A large part of the domestic salt used at all the seaports or tributary points on the North Atlantic coast of the United States is produced in New York State.

There are two principal salt districts in the State—the Syracuse region and the western New York salt fields, located in Wyoming and Livingston counties.

The former have an advantage of being on the line of the Erie Canal, which enables them during the canal season (May to November) to get their product to New York City at an average freight of about $1.20 per ton; but they are at a disadvantage by having a weak brine, for which they have to pay a royalty to the State, and a higher-price fuel.

Nearly all the money invested in salt works in New York State dur-

ing the past ten years has been used in developing the western New York fields.

When canal freights are very low salt can be shipped from this district by railroad to Rochester and thence to New York City by canal at cost of about $1.85 per ton of 2,240 pounds, but for certainly eight months of the year the companies in western New York are dependent upon railroads, and have to pay $2.25 per ton to New York, Philadelphia, and Baltimore; $2.69 per ton to New Haven, Boston, Providence, and Gloucester; $3.47 per ton to Portland, Bath, etc., and $3.25 to $6 per ton to Southern ports.

The average freight on imported salt is at least $1.50 per ton less than the average freight from the New York Salt Works to Boston, New York City, Philadelphia, and Baltimore.

KANSAS.

The salt companies in this State now furnish most of the salt used at Missouri River points.

English salt brought to New Orleans as ballast and carried up the Mississippi and Missouri against the current of traffic at very low rates, can be landed in Kansas City at a total freight from Liverpool very slightly in excess of the rail freight from the salt works at Hutchinson, Kans., to Kansas City.

The probable result is made evident by the fact that the Armour Packing Company, of Kansas City, use English salt on all their meat packed for export, for they are then enabled to secure a refund of duty which makes it to their advantage to use imported salt.

Northern Texas is now a consumer of considerable Kansas salt, and free salt would effectively drive them from this territory. (*See* appendix, letter of the Kansas Salt Company to Senator Martin.)

LOUISIANA.

The principal salt works of this State are at Petite Anse, New Iberia, on the Southern Pacific Railroad, about 125 miles west from New Orleans.

The sections shipped to by these works includes Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama, Arkansas, and parts of Florida and Tennessee.

A large part of the salt now used in this section is imported, and low ocean freight rates enable the importers to pay the present duty of 8 cents per 100 pounds, and still successfully compete with the domestic product, and with the duty removed domestic salt companies would be forced to suspend shipping to the greater part of territory mentioned.

The freight rate from Petite Anse to New Orleans is $1.78 per ton, while the ocean freight from Liverpool to New Orleans or Mobile has averaged for several years 3*s*. or 72 cents per ton.

Thus at a point 5,000 miles from Liverpool and 125 miles from the domestic salt works, the importer has an advantage in freight of $1.06 per ton.

Salt for Vicksburg, Baton Rogue, Memphis, St. Louis, and all Mississippi River points is shipped via New Orleans. The river charges being the same on either salt, the imported article therefore has an advantage in freight of $1.06 per ton at all these points.

On account of the ballast freight rates giving such an advantage to the importers during the last five years the output at Petite Anse has been decreased from 55,214 tons in 1888 to 28,000 tons in 1892.

TEXAS.

The trade of the Texas salt companies is practically confined to the States of Texas and Louisiana.

Foreign salt brought as ballast to New Orleans is carried by steamer up the Red River and landed at Shreveport, La., and Jefferson, Tex., right in the heart of the salt-producing district.

High water, which enables boats to proceed still further into Texas, occurs during the winter months when ships are coming to New Orleans for cotton and bringing salt for ballast. This is also the season for salting meat, when the demand for salt is greatest.

Rail freights in Texas are very high. From the salt regions South the rates are $5 per ton to points at distances less than 200 miles from the works, while the rate on imported salt to the same points from Galveston and Houston are very much less.

With the present duty imported salt is sold almost exclusively in southern Texas; and with the duty removed the great advantage of ballast freights would enable the importer to control all parts of Texas to the complete ruin of the salt industry in that State, (*see* appendix, letter from Lone Star Salt Company).

VIRGINIA.

The salt works are located at Saltville, in the southwest corner of the State, and owing to high freight rates, the section in which these companies can successfully compete is small.

The Kansas, Ohio, and West Virginia salt works limit the distance that the Virginia companies can ship to the North and West, and foreign salt via Norfolk is now shipped as far west as the Blue Ridge range.

With the duty removed, imported salt would be shipped still further west, and the section in which it would be possible for the Virginia companies to compete would be restricted to the territory immediately adjacent to the works.

CALIFORNIA.

The foreign salt entering into competition in this market is exported mostly from England, Mexico, and the Mediterranean, and in most cases is carried at mere ballast rates.

The domestic companies have lately expended much energy and capital, and have increased their production from 62,363 barrels in 1890 to 235,703 barrels in 1892.

The present price at the works is $2 per ton of 2,000 pounds for common salt; and table and dairy salt are correspondingly low.

The home competition is so great that 3-pound sacks of table salt are retailed to the consumer at 2 for 5 cents. (*See* appendix, letter from Union Pacific Salt Company.)

FISH SALT.

There is a provision in the present tariff law that enables the deep-sea fishermen on our coast to get the salt for curing their fish free of duty, and the operation of this provision is the best proof we can offer of the inability of the domestic producer to compete with free salt.

American salt is perfectly suited for curing fish. It is used exclusively on the Great Lakes with perfect results, and when, due to some

extraordinary cause, such as the wrecking of several salt-laden vessels, a shipment of domestic salt has been made to the coast fishermen, it has given perfect satisfaction.

For years the American salt companies have made every effort to sell the fish trade at Gloucester and other New England towns, as well as the Potomac region, but they have never been, under ordinary circumstances, able to meet the importer's price, and to-day not a pound of domestic salt is being used in this extensive industry.

IN CONFIRMATION OF OUR THIRD STATEMENT, THAT THE PRESENT DUTY IS NOT AN APPRECIABLE TAX ON ANYONE.

Salt for commercial purposes.—For commercial purposes salt is largely used for packing meats, salting hides, curing fish, freezing ice cream, and in the manufacture of chemicals, soap, and glass. For all of these uses the cost of salt would not average more than 1 per cent of the total cost of supplies and materials used, and therefore a little higher or lower cost to the packer or manufacturer is a matter of trifling importance, even supposing that the removal of the duty would effect a reduction in price.

Table salt.—The argument is used that salt is a necessity of every poor man in the land.

A family of 4 to 6 persons use on the average 75 pounds of salt per year. The present duty on this amount is 6 cents; so if a family benefited by the full amount of duty proposed to be removed a saving of 6 cents per annum would be effected.

They usually buy their salt in 3-pound bags. The cost of the salt in a 3-pound bag is practically nothing (less than one-third of a cent), the selling price being made up almost entirely of the cost of the bag, labor of filling, weighing, and sewing same, and the handling and profit of the salt jobber (not the manufacturer), the wholesale grocer, and the retail grocer. A 3-pound bag of salt retails for 5 cents; the removal of the duty would reduce the cost one-fourth of a cent. As our currency is not of a denomination to make possible a selling price of 4¾ cents, it is quite evident that the cost of a small bag would not be reduced to the consumer.

Dairy salt.—Dairy salt is imported in packages and therefore pays a duty of 12 cents per 100 pounds. The extra 4 cents per 100 pounds is added as a duty on the fine linen sacks in which this grade of salt is imported, consequently the duty on the salt is but 8 cents per 100 pounds.

One pound of salt will salt 16 pounds of butter. A reduction of the full amount of duty would effect a saving to the farmer of 1 cent on every 200 pounds of butter salted by him, and even this trifling reduction would result to the benefit of the dealer and not the farmer, as in the case of table salt.

IN CONCLUSION.

In the seaboard cities the dealers and large consumers, who can take their salt in quantity from the vessel, would effect a slight temporary saving on the cost of their salt.

The average selling prices for several years on the cheaper grades of domestic salt have been $2.25 per ton ($2 per ton of 2,000 pounds) free on board the works in New York, Kansas, Michigan, Louisiana, California, etc.

If forced to sell below these prices the American works must sooner or later shut down, the time depending only upon the amount of money they are willing and able to spend in continuing a hopeless fight with the importer. A condition would soon exist when the British Salt Union, which has already made several ineffectual attempts to gain control of the industry in this country, could buy up some of the salt works for a mere song. These they could operate, and could well afford to sell below cost at those points where the domestic salt still had a fighting chance, and by that means close all the salt works in the States adjacent to the coast.

The price would then be advanced, and we would in the Eastern, Middle, and Southern States be entirely dependent upon foreigners for our supply of that most necessary article.

The agents could, and likely would, give the sole control of their product to one firm in each city. These firms, by declining to sell at any reasonable price to dealers who have been their competitors for years could force such firms out of the salt business, so that merchants and their employés as well as the manufacturers and their workmen would have to seek work in other fields.

The large decrease in importations is in the finer grades from England, and the reason therefore is not the inability of the English manufacturers to compete under the present tariff, but the policy of exorbitant prices inaugurated by the directors of the British Salt Union.

The small falling off in the importations of "common" and "coarse" salts show that these grades can well stand the present duty.

If there are to be any import duties in this country, whether for protection or for revenue, we contend that the salt industries have the very highest claims for your consideration.

There is no salt trust in this country, the most moderate profits only have been made in recent years in this trade, the selling prices have never been advanced by pools, combinations, etc., and the average selling price is far cheaper than that of any other manufactured article produced in this country.

Common coal and sand are the only articles we can think of that are sold as cheap as salt.

Nearly 70 per cent in value of the dutiable salt imported to this country in 1892 was shipped by one company (The British Salt Trust), represented in this country by a single firm.

There is no intelligent demand for a reduction in the duty on salt, and the only beneficiaries under such an act would be the British Salt Union and the salt merchants in the West Indies and the Mediterranean.

We therefore pray that the honorable Senate of the United States will give this important matter their most careful consideration before sacrificing an industry of most vital importance to the whole country.

EDWARD W. BROWN,
On behalf of the salt industry of the United States.

EXHIBIT A.

EXTRACTS OF SALT CIRCULARS ISSUED BY H. E. FALK, OF LIVERPOOL.

H. A. Falk, a prominent salt merchant of Liverpool, England, and a director of the *British Salt Union*, issues each month "Falk's Salt Circular," containing prices, *freight rates, and a market report.*

We append a number of extracts from these circulars to confirm many of our statements, and to show that the large falling off in the importation of English salt to the United States is due primarily to the exorbitant prices charged by the union.

We concur with Mr. Falk in his opinion that it was the policy of the directors of the Salt Union, and not the inability of the English salt manufacturers to compete, that caused Liverpool shipments to this country to decline from 228,000 tons in 1885 to 60,056 tons in 1893.

January 4, 1888—Prices free on board, Liverpool.—Common white, 7*s*; "factory" filled (including sacks), 25*s*.; picked lump rock, 9*s*. 6*d*.

The above prices were current previous to the formation of the British Salt Union. The Salt Union was organized early in 1889, and prices adopted as follows:

August 6, 1889—Prices free on board, Liverpool.—Common salt for America, 11*s*. 6*d*.; common salt for Australasia, 13*s*. 6*d*.; "factory filled" (including sacks,) 27*s*. 6*d*; picked lump rock, 16*s*.

November 2, 1889.—"The only charge in the price list is an advance of 16*s*. on 'factory filled' to the West Indies and South America." Prices, "factory filled" for United States, 27*s*. 6*d*.; "factory filled" for West Indies and South America, 43*s*. 6*d*.

January 7, 1890.—"The freights from Liverpool to all Atlantic seaboards are mere ballast rates, and much less than cost of railway transport from the American salt centers inland to the coast."

July 4, 1890.—"Falling off in United States figures is, however, an unpleasant feature, and the salt union will sooner or later have to face the necessity for drastic measures to regain our old position in that market."

September 3, 1890.—"We should have had considerably larger export to America and elsewhere if 'factory filled' had not been in short supply."

July 8, 1891.—"We may also at an early date look forward to an adjustment of prices for American descriptions; such figures as will enable Liverpool exporters to resume their old position in the United States trade."

August 8, 1891.—"Trade for the United States waits the promised revision of prices."

October 8, 1891.—"Shipments to the United States have been disappointing, nor are they likely to improve materially until the salt directors resolutely grapple with the situation, created by the unfortunate error of judgment, as to prices for that market."

November 7, 1891.—"A modification will be noticed in price of 'factory filled' salt for the United States. This is a step in the right direction and should bring a considerable inquiry from America." Prices, "factory filled," 27*s*. 6*d*. to 30*s*. 6*d*.; "factory filled," for United States, 25*s*. to 27*s*. 6*d*.

May 6, 1892.—"The only incident to chronicle this month is a reduction in price of 'factory filled' salt for the United States." Prices, "factory filled," 24*s*. to 30*s*. 6*d*.

July 9, 1892.—"The directors of the salt union have entered on a commercial policy which is opposed to all the experience of the past; they have attempted to force all the trade with the United States through the hands of one importing firm in New York, with the result that other large importers all over the States naturally turned their attention to American makers."

January 14, 1893.—"In the United States we made a satisfactory increase on the west coast, and in such other markets as can be reached at nominal rates of freight; but we have lost ground heavily in New York, and in other ports where the American railroad rates give transatlantic manufacturers an advantage over our handicap of ocean freight and a heavy custom tariff combined."

In 1892 there were five sail charters for salt from Liverpool to New York, the freight rates being respectively, 1*s*., 1*s*., 1*s*. 6*d*., 4*s*., and 2*s*. 3*d*., the average being, for the year, 1*s*. 11*d*. per ton.

We show below, in parallel columns, the average freight rates for 1892 from Liverpool to sundry United States ports, according to Falk's circulars, and the lowest freight rate on domestic salt to those same points.

	From Liverpool.	From American salt works.
To New York, sail, 1*s*. 6*d*	$0.42	$2.25
To New York, steam, 4*s*. 6*d*	1.10	
Boston, steam, 1*s*. 6*d*	.37	2.00
Baltimore, steam, 5*s*	1.22	2.25
Philadelphia, steam, 7*s*	1.70	2.25
New Orleans, steam, 3*s*. 3*d*	.79	.....
Wilmington, sail, 1*s*. 9*d*	.42	.....

It will therefore be seen that in most cases the freight and duty together on English salt is less that the freight alone on the domestic article.

August 8, 1893.—"In consequence of scarcity of fuel caused by coal strike, prices are without any stability, and are subject to arrangement from day to day. For some grades the advance made amounts to as much as 40 or 50 per cent above last month's prices. Prices subject to daily arrangement."

October 10, 1893.—"Shipments of salt continued to be impeded by the coal strike. Prices subject to daily arrangement."

November 11, 1893.—"The salt trade is still suffering acutely from the difficulties caused by the prolonged coal strike." Prices, common salt, 12*s* to 15*s*; "factory filled." 25*s* to 30*s*; picked lump rock, 15*s* 6*d* to 17*s* 6*d*.

December 8, 1893.—"The most notable decline shows itself once more in the exports to the United States, where the policy pursued by the Salt Union has had disastrous consequences."

January 11, 1894.—The decline of Liverpool shipments to the United States is of exceptional gravity. From 228,000 tons in 1885, we have now fallen to 66,056 tons in 1893. The directors of the Salt Union, by a policy of comparatively high prices and vexatious restrictions upon Liverpool shippers, have given to American manufacturers a species of protection quite as valuable to them as a high custom tariff; and to-day it is questionable whether we could regain much of the trade they have taken from us, even if salt should be admitted free of duty.

"Freights are lower even than they were at the beginning of 1893, and the completion of the Manchester Ship Canal may possibly give further facilities to shippers. Thus the moment is opportune for well-directed activity, and 1894 ought to see a great improvement in shipments, provided that we are spared any more disastrous strikes, such as those which have tended to cripple the salt trade in 1892 and 1893.

"Present freights to America: Steam, New York, 5*s*.; Boston, 2*s*.; Philadelphia, 6*s*.; Baltimore, 5*s*.; New Orleans, 3*s*. Sail, New York, 1*s*.; San Francisco, 11*s*."

EXHIBIT B.

THE CUNARD STEAMSHIP COMPANY, LIMITED,
VERNON H. BROWN & CO., AGENTS,
4 Bowling Green, New York, February 23, 1894.

DEAR SIRS: In answer to your inquiry I beg to say that the highest freight rate on salt carried by steamers of the Cunard line from Liverpool to Boston during the past year or two has been 1*s*. per ton. Our records show that we have carried but very little salt during the specified time, and as our Liverpool people are usually ready to carry it at a cheap rate it is evident that steamers of other lines have been disposed to carry it at even less money. Several cases have occurred during the past year where salt has been brought from Liverpool to Boston for ballast, freight free.

Yours, truly,

VERNON H. BROWN.

Messrs. FOSTER, BROWN & CO.,
Agents of the Retsof Salt Company.

VERNON H. BROWN & CO.,
23 Beaver Street, New York, April 26, 1894.

DEAR SIR: Replying to your inquiry of 24th instant, we beg leave to say that the Italian bark *E. Raggio* arrived at this port to our consignment on the 19th instant, having left Liverpool on the 15th February. She brought 300 tons sacked salt for Messrs. Moulton & Co. and Robinson & Co.

The freight was 1*s*. per ton of 2,240 pounds, vessel paying 4*d*. sterling per ton for loading same, and customary stevedore charge for discharging.

Yours, truly,

VERNON H. BROWN & CO.

E. W. BROWN, Esq.
(Messrs Foster, Brown & Co.), 146 Broadway.

EXHIBIT C.

D. B. Dearborn, esq., a shipping merchant of New York, sometimes brings cargoes of salt on his vessels from Liverpool to New York.

His letter is in reply to an inquiry asking for complete list of his vessels bringing salt to the United States during last two years.

D. B. DEARBORN, 22 BEAVER STREET.
New York, April 13, 1894.

DEAR SIRS: In reply to your inquiry, the ship *Challenger* from Liverpool arrived in January, 1892, had part of a cargo of salt (say 1,025 tons), freight, 1*s.* sterling per ton. Ship *Shenandoah* arrived January, 1893, from Liverpool with 1,460 tons salt, freight at 2*s.* per ton.

Yours, truly,

D. B. DEARBORN.

Messrs. FOSTER, BROWN & CO., *City.*

UNITED SALT COMPANY, *Cleveland, Ohio, March 1, 1894.*

DEAR SIR: Among other things, I have noticed that salt was proposed to be placed on the free list apparently in the category of raw materials. Now, salt is a manufactured article. I am president of a large company located at Cleveland. We have a capacity of about 1,000,000 barrels per year, and with salt on the free list it will force the price of labor and everything which goes into the manufacture of the article down to a point which will enable us to compete with foreign manufacturers. On the other hand, the consumer will not reap any benefit.

At present we are selling salt for $2.15 per ton bulk. An advance of $1 a ton or a decline of $1 a ton will not affect the price of the 3-pound pocket which is retailed at 3 cents. Consequently the consumer will pay the same price as he does to-day, the retail merchant and the jobber making whatever profit there may be by reason of any decline from foreign competition.

Hon. William Wilson has laid considerable stress on the fact that salt was a commodity which was used in every household and for that reason should be placed on the free list for the benefit of the consumer, whereas, you will see, by the fact that the difference in the value by reason of the duty is so small a fraction of a cent per pound that it can not effect the retail price of salt. As a rule it is sold in pockets of 3 pounds and retails at 3 cents per pocket. The duty is eight one-hundredths of a cent per pound, and 3 pounds would only be a quarter of a cent on a pocket.

Trusting this information may be of value to you, I remain, respectfully, yours,

F. B. SQUIRE.

EXHIBIT D.

LONE STAR SALT COMPANY,
Dallas, Tex., February 24, 1894.

GENTLEMEN: The argument which you use in the brief submitted to the Senate subcommittee, relative to the effects of free English salt on the American industry in New York State, covers our case also, as trade is confined to our State and Louisiana, and while you have the Erie Canal, we have the Red River by which the English salt could be landed right in the heart of our territory at Shreveport, and a greater portion of the year at Jefferson, Tex., and this at a time when we can be injured most severely, for high water, which permits boats to run to the points mentioned, comes during the winter months, when cotton ships are coming to New Orleans bringing salt as ballast, and at the time when the greatest demand is for domestic meat salting.

Our rates in Texas are exorbitant. We are charged as high as $6 per ton from our works in eastern Texas to points much nearer to us than is New York City to your works, in fact, our rates, when delivered to connecting lines are as high as $5 a ton for a distance under 200 miles from the works. This is toward the south. Rates to these same points from Galveston and Houston on English salt are very much lower.

We are pioneers in salt-making in Texas, and have endured every hardship which first settlers always have to meet. We were obliged to fight Michigan and Kansas salt from the North, and the English and New Iberia salt on the south, and the struggle has been a most bitter one. There is nothing in the future outlook of salt in our State that has the least bit of encouragement in it. All of the salt which

comes to Galveston and New Orleans comes in sacks, and even with the 24 cents duty, on account of the high wages which we are obliged to pay, and the high cost of fuel and all other supplies pertaining to salt-making which we are obliged to obtain from the North and East, and on account of the discrimination in freights against us, we are scarcely able to compete with the English article.

We have been obliged to take for certain grades of our solar salt as low as $1 per ton, and the highest brings us but $3 per ton net. Our limited territory makes it impossible for us to increase our output to such an extent as to enable us to more than pay expenses. We sometime since submitted arguments to both Senators Mills and Voorhees on the subject of duty on salt, and the effect which placing of salt on the free list would have on our industry and those connected with it. We are obliged to pay very high wages, and then to take men out of the cotton fields, and with ofttimes poor success.

With foreign salt brought in as ballast, practically free of freight and entered, as contemplated by the Wilson bill, free, and with the disposition of the railroads to load empty cars from gulf ports at a less rate than they will remove cars toward the seaport, our trade will be entirely absorbed by the English salt even in northern Texas, where we are supposed to have an advantage. With the great disadvantage which we labor under on account of high rates in southern Texas, we are shut out of that territory almost entirely at this writing, so that we can see that the passing of the Wilson bill means nothing but complete ruin to the salt industry in Texas.

Yours, very truly,

F. R. BLOUNT,
President.

Messrs. FOSTER, BROWN & CO.,
New York, N. Y.

EXHIBIT E.

HUTCHINSON, KANS., *December 16, 1893.*

MY DEAR SIR: I am in receipt of your favors of the 5th and 8th instants, and I thank you for the favorable consideration of my recent letter. As I wrote you, the position of the Democratic party in all its recent national conventions has been "tariff for revenue only." It was this one phrase that defeated Hancock for the Presidency in 1880. It could not be desired now to adopt a free trade policy as a whole. Why should salt be put upon the free list? It is a finished product and can not sustain labor when imported as can other articles that are to be reported by the Ways and Means Committee for the free list. The only consideration that can possibly be conceived is the reduction in price to the consumer. Did you ever hear of a citizen of the United States of late years complaining that salt was costing too much? For the past year it has not exceeded 60 cents per barrel, free on board cars here, and is now worth 57 cents. Of this amount the package and packing costs 30 cents, leaving but 27 cents for 280 pounds of salt, or $1.73 per ton of 2,000 pounds. Almost as cheap as sand.

In Michigan the price is 45 cents per barrel, in New York 50 to 55 cents, the difference in price being on account of the difference in fuel and cost of package. Certainly there is no product of such general consumption that costs people so little. Coming to the effect it would have upon the Kansas industry in event of free salt, I want to say frankly it would probably affect this field less than any other in this country; at the same time its effects on us would be serious at best, and how far it would reach it would be hard to determine, except by actual test. At this time and with the present duty Galveston, Houston, San Antonio, and all southern Texas is supplied with foreign salt. In conversation a few days ago with Wallis Landis & Co., prominent importers of Galveston, they told a representative of ours that with free salt they could come as far north as Fort Worth, Tex. Outside of Kansas, Texas is the largest consumer, notwithstanding there are salt manufactories in that State which would doubtless be closed altogether with free salt.

It would be useless for me to submit you an array of figures, as you have them more complete and accessible, but for your ready information I submit you the following:

The importations from 1873 to 1882, inclusive, were 3,577,593,143 pounds in packages and 4,367,878,034 pounds bulk, from which the Government derived a revenue of $7,765,021.73. This is a revenue of something over $700,000 per annum. In the year 1868, when the duty was 18 and 24 cents per cwt., the duty collected was $1,136,175.76, showing that the reduction, while not materially increasing the amount imported, did decrease the revenue of the Government nearly $500,000. Now, with a

depleted Treasury and a large deficit staring them in the face they propose cutting off all revenue from this source. I am sorry I have not the figures of more recent date to give you, but you can readily get them. I have figures for 1889, which show duties collected to the amount of $469,435.47. The output of this field last year was 1,080,000 barrels. This year it will not be so great on account of the financial depression. Aside from an association of part of the manufacturers in Michigan there is no combination of the manufacturers in the United States. It is being manufactured and sold at a ruinously low price and can not stand outside competition. Water transportation can not be met and consequently our trade would be reduced to the minimum.

A packer in Iowa claims that with water transportation up the Mississippi River they can buy salt to an advantage from England if admitted free of duty. This is further evidenced by the fact that the Armour Packing Company, of Kansas City, uses English salt on all exported meats because they are able to secure refund of duty on all salt used on exported meats. I have given you these facts hurriedly, and desire to assure you that if I did not feel that our industry, one of the greatest in Kansas, was in danger of being seriously injured I should urge no objection. If anyone was to be benefited aside from the importer I might feel that my motives were selfish, but it will certainly be detrimental to both the owners of the property and a large amount of people depending upon industry for their sustenance. I trust you will see your way clear to resist the reduction of duty on salt.

Again thanking you, I remain, yours, truly,

J. M. MULKEY,
Secretary Kansas Salt Company.

Hon. JOHN MARTIN,
Washington, D. C.

EXHIBIT F.

[Tariff hearings before the Committee on Ways and Means.]

SALT.

SAN FRANCISCO, CAL., *September 16, 1893.*

The undersigned, producers and manufacturers of salt in the State of California, hereby petition your honorable body to continue the protection of the salt industry in this and other States in the Union.

This protection is the present tariff of 8 cents per 100 pounds salt in bulk and 12 cents per 100 pounds salt in bags. Under this protection the salt industry has been largely increased, and the production increasing every year and keeping pace with the population and ever increasing demands for salt; in fact, in many localities the production is largely in excess of the demand, and competition, coupled with high railroad freights, has brought the selling price of salt down to cost. Now, with the large additions of salt imported from England, France, Germany, Italy, and Mexico, on which the salt duties have been cheerfully paid by the importers, and entering into competition with our domestic product, there is a depression which has existed for more than a year past and promises to continue and prove disastrous to the home product and industry if there is any reduction made in the salt duties, as we can not compete with salt made by the cheap labor of the countries heretofore named.

You will please understand that this foreign salt is not superior to our home product, but owing to large productions the foreign producers look to the United States for a market for its surplus salt, and, finding it here, compete so strongly that our home industry is in danger.

The present rate of salt duties works no hardship on the consumer. We hear no complaint from those who use salt, and the duties are divided up into so many small sales and quantities that it is scarcely perceptible, and the Government derives a good revenue from the collection of the salt duties.

The industry in the United States is of such a magnitude that it can produce enough salt to supply the whole country, of a superior quality. We are not dependent on foreign countries for any.

Foreign countries protect their salt industries. Mexico levies $10 per ton; Australia, $5. Now, we look to our representatives in Congress to continue protection that has been so wisely given us.

We beg your favorable consideration to our appeal for protection of the salt industry.

UNION PACIFIC SALT COMPANY,
By JOHN BARTON, *President, and others.*

EXHIBIT G.

[Letter of Retsof Mining Company, miners and shippers of salt. Mines: Retsof, Livingston County, N. Y. Office, 146 Broadway.]

NEW YORK, *May 9, 1894.*

It has been asserted that "the difference in cost of transportation furnishes a natural protection to American industries."

How far this natural protection applies to salt is shown very concisely in the two letters, and the Delaware, Lackawanna and Western Railroad freight tariff appended hereto.

Making the liberal allowance of 1*s.* 6*d.* per ton for lightering salt from the works of the British Salt Union at Cheshire to Liverpool, the total cost of landing this English salt in New York, as shown by the attached letters, is 2*s.* 6*d.*, or 60 cents per ton, against a cost of $2.25 per ton on salt from the western New York salt fields.

The English salt-makers, therefore, have an advantage of $1.65 per ton in cost of transportation over their American competitors, at a point 350 miles from the American works, and 3,000 miles from the English works.

The Retsof Company alone ships to New York City, on an average, 80 tons per day. I have no official data to show how much salt is shipped to New York City by all the New York State companies, but a careful estimate warrants me in stating that the daily amount averages not less than 500 tons.

By utilizing the best-known methods and employing every labor-saving device suggested by American ingenuity, we are able to pay our laborers say $1.50 per day, and still mine, hoist, crush, screen, and load our salt on the cars practically as cheap as it can be done by the English companies paying but 75 cents per day for their labor. What more can we be expected to do? Granting that we can produce our salt as cheap as it can be produced in England, the enormous advantage in cost of transportation gained by the importers must result in effectively shutting out our product from the coast. What this loss will be to the salt companies can be estimated when it is considered that New York City alone now furnishes an outlet for 500 tons per day.

The matters which control ocean freight rates are, of course, entirely beyond the jurisdiction of the American salt producers, and therefore nothing that is in our power to do will enable us to hold our trade on the coast with salt on the free list.

Respectfully,

ROBT. S. WALKER,
Treasurer Retsof Mining Company.

VERNON H. BROWN & CO.,
23 Beaver street, New York, April 26, 1894.

DEAR SIR: Replying to your inquiry of the 24th instant, we beg to say that the Italian bark *E. Raggio* arrived at this port to our consignment on the 19th instant having left Liverpool on the 15th of February. She brought 300 tons sacked salt for Messrs. Moulton & Co. and Robinson & Co.

The freight was 1*s.* per ton of 2.240 pounds, vessel paying 4*d.* per ton for loading same and customary stevedore charge for discharging.

Yours, truly,

VERNON H. BROWN & CO.

E. W. BROWN, Esq.,
Messrs. Foster, Brown & Co., 146 Broadway.

VERNON H. BROWN & CO.,
23 Beaver street, New York, May 8, 1894.

DEAR SIR: The ship *Standard* arrived here from Liverpool May 3, consigned to Messrs. J. W. Elwell & Co. Her cargo consisted of 845 tons salt, the freight on same being 1*s.* per ton of 2,240 pounds.

Yours, truly,

VERNON H. BROWN & CO.

E. W. BROWN, Esq.,
Messrs. Foster, Brown & Co., New York.

[Genesee and Wyoming Valley Railway Company, General Freight Department. Tariff Series No. 50 A.]

RETSOF, N. Y., *April 20, 1893.*

On and after May 1, 1893, the following joint salt tariff will be in force on the articles named below, viz:

On salt, carloads, from Retsof, N. Y., to New York, N. Y., via Delaware, Lackawanna and Western Railroad, at through rate of 30 cents per barrel of 300 pounds ($2.24 per ton).

Divided: ——— ———.

This rate must not be exceeded to or from any intermediate point.

Under this tariff, when freight is to be loaded by consignor or unloaded by consignee, $1 per car per day or fraction thereof, for delay beyond forty-eight hours in loading or unloading, will be added to the rates named herein, and constitute a part of the total charges to be collected by the carrier on the property; except, however, when in conflict with rules of car-service associations at destination, in which case the car-service regulations shall prevail.

This tariff expires ———. Copy to ——— ———.

C. T. CHURCH,
General Freight Agent.

FOSTER, BROWN & CO.

EXHIBIT H,

Referring to the salt circular issued by Messrs. Francis D. Moulton & Co., American agents of the British Salt Union.

WASHINGTON, *March 1, 1894.*

Our attention has recently been called to the argument in circular form issued by Messrs. Francis D. Moulton & Co., of New York, and submitted to the Ways and Means Committee, advocating free salt.

The figures quoted in this circular are somewhat misleading and require an explanation, which we will make seriatim.

Present duty on salt, 8 cents per 100 pounds if imported in bulk; 12 cents per 100 pounds if imported in packages.

No other duty being imposed upon the coverings, the extra 4 cents per 100 pounds is levied as a duty on the fine linen sacks in which fine salt is imported.

The three standard sizes of salt sacks are 224, 112, and 5 pounds, and the additional 4 cents per 100 pounds makes the duty on the sacks, respectively, 9, 4½, and 2¼ cents. This is approximately the same duty which the American salt manufacturer has to pay on the sacks which he uses, and the extra 4 cents is not a duty on the salt.

Therefore, under the present law the duty on all salt is 8 cents per 100 pounds.

LIGHTERAGE TO LIVERPOOL.

In the accounting of the items making up the cost of the various grades of English salt free on board Liverpool the charge is made "freight to Liverpool, 3*s.* 6*d.* per ton," leading the reader to suppose that this is an expense similar to the $2.25 freight rate charged on domestic salt from western New York salt fields to the coast.

The works and mines of the British Salt Union are in the Cheshire district, on the River Weaver, about 15 miles from Liverpool. The salt is transported from the works to Liverpool on flat lighters owned by the salt union at a very small expense. They make a fixed charge of 3*s.* 6*d.* for this service, about 2*s.* 6*d.* of this amount being clear profit. As stated in the Encyclopædia Britannica, the Cheshire salt manufacturers frequently sell their product below cost, stated therein to be 5*s.* 4*d.* per ton, and obtain their profit from their exhorbitant charge for lightering. Instead, therefore, of the charge, "freight to Liverpool, 3*s.* 6*d.* per ton," it should more correctly be stated lighterage to Liverpool, 1*s.*, and the 2*s.* 6*d.* added for the price received for the salt at the works.

FACTORY FILLED.

The circular gives 27*s.* per ton as the selling price in Liverpood of "factory filled" salt, and in showing how the 27*s.* is made up, gives 12*s.* 3*d.* as the price of the bulk

salt, and 3*s.* 6*d.* freight to Liverpool. Adding to the price of the salt the profit on the lighterage, the figures show that the Salt Union receives for its "factory filled" salt at the works:

	s.	d.
Salt	14	9
Filling sacks	1	7
Cost of sacks	8	9
Total	25	1

which equals $6.10 per ton, or 61 cents per sack of 224 pounds.

The circular then says: "The domestic 'factory filled' made at and near Warsaw, N. Y., is sold by the carload, free on board at the works at 50 cents per sack of 224 pounds," thus showing conclusively that the American manufacturer, even with the present duty, nets 11 cents per sack less than his foreign competitor, while his cost for labor, fuel, and sacks is materially higher.

The selling price in New York of the imported "factory filled" salt is from $1.12 to $1.15 per sack, evidently based on a cost of $1.08 per sack, while the corresponding grade of domestic salt can be bought for 72½ cents. The explanation of this is: Until the year 1883 no salt was made in the Eastern part of this country from a saturated brine, and it was not until the year 1886 that the New York manufacturers claimed to make a high grade of "factory filled" salt, and it was not until 1889 that they used the methods now employed. We had previous to this time been dependent upon England for our high-grade salt, and a number of their best-known brands, such as "Deakins" "Falks," "Virdins," etc., have obtained a reputation and prestige in this country that will insure the selling of a limited quantity of that salt at any price within reason for a number of years to come. However, where 1 sack of English "factory filled" salt is sold at $1.12, probably 100 sacks of American "factory filled" salt are sold at 72½ cents.

Previous to the formation of the British Salt Trust, "factory filled" salt sold for 25*s.* per ton. The high price at which it has been held for several years, which policy has been most severely criticised by Mr. Falk in his circulars, has curtailed the sales to the extent that not a large enough quantity is usually imported at one time to make practical its shipment in sailing vessels. (See Exhibit A, "Extracts from Falk's Circulars.")

If the duty is removed, the salt would come by sailing vessel and would cost landed in New York, free of duty, according to Messrs. Moulton & Co.'s own figures:

		s.	d.
Salt in sacks, free on board Liverpool	per ton	27	0
Freight to New York	do	2	3
		29	3

equal to $7.14 per ton, or 71¾ cents per sack, against 72½ cents for the domestic, and based on these prices the Salt Union nets 61 cents, free on board works, against 50 cents for the American companies.

Based on 25*s.*, free on board Liverpool, and 2*s.* freight to New York, the imported salt would cost in New York 27*s.*, $6.58 per ton, or 65¾ cents per sack. With the present duty added the selling price in New York would be:

	Per ton.
Salt in sacks in New York	$6.58
Duty, 8 cents per 100 lbs	1.78
	8.36

or 83⅜ cents per sack, and on this selling price the union would net 56½ cents per sack at their works. To net this same price domestic "factory filled" salt would cost in New York 78 7/10 cents per sack.

Of the total importation in 1892, less then 25 per cent was salt of this grade. (*See* Exhibit B, "Mineral Resources of the United States.")

Referring to foot note regarding freight rates.

The ship *John McDonald*, with salt for F. D. Moulton & Co., left Liverpool in December, 1893. Freight, 1*s.* 6*d.*

This reduces the average freight rate for 1893 from Liverpool to New York to 2*s.* per ton.

SALT RESHIPPED.

The circular states: "The local rate of freight from New York to interior points tributary to the New York market averages 13 cents per 100 pounds."

The more *important of the* points tributary to the New York market are Yonkers, *Newburg, Poughkeepsie,* Rondout, Kingston, Hudson, Albany, and Troy on the

COMMON SALT.

The statement made in the circular in regard to common salt is substantially correct. The "fall short" and "insurance," being charges common to both domestic and imported salts, should not be considered, and the difference in favor of English salt without duty is nearer $1.40 than $1.30 per ton, as claimed by Messrs. Moulton & Co. They quote the price of their common salt as 10*s.* free on board, Liverpool.

We find by referring to Falk's circular of January 4, 1888, before the formation of the British Salt Union, that common salt was quoted at 7*s.* per ton free on board Liverpool. After the formation of the union, in 1889, common salt was advanced in price, and was quoted in Falk's circular of that year, "for shipment to America, 11*s.* 6*d.*; for shipment to Australasia, 13*s.* 6*d.*" Were the English union to sell now at the prices of 1888 and obtain the freight rates that have existed for several years, they could land their "common" salt in New York City, without duty, for 9*s.* or $2.25 per ton. As our freight rate from the New York salt fields to New York City is $2.5 per ton, how could we compete with this salt?

The steam freight to Boston being but 1*s.* per ton, the imported "common" salt could be landed there by steamer for $1.75 per ton, while the freight alone on domestic salt is $2.69.

This grade would answer the purposes for which three-fifths of the salt made in this country is used.

PRICES OF "COMMON SALT" AT INLAND POINTS.

At Chicago, Cleveland, and St. Louis the domestic salt has a considerable advantage. The packers are practically the only inland consumers of foreign salt, and as they, under the present law, get a rebate on all the foreign salt they use, free salt will make no change in prices in those markets.

Owing to old prejudices, many English buyers of salted meats insist upon the meat they buy being packed with English salt. Except for this cause the decrease in importations of this grade would have been even greater than it has been, and were it not for the rebate of duty the packers would long ago have forced the English buyers to take their salted meats packed with American salt.

COARSE SALT.

The circular says: "Without the duty of 6 cents per bushel the Turks Island salt could not be sold for less than 13 cents per bushel delivered at buyers' wharf."

During the year 1893 Turks Island salt was sold in New York delivered at buyers' wharf for 16 cents per bushel, including the duty of say 6 cents per bushel (or 8 cents per 100 pounds), thus showing that with duty entirely removed it could be sold for 10 cents per bushel instead of 13 cents, as stated in above extract from circular.

Based on this cost the salt could be landed in New York: Salt free on board Liverpool, 9*s.* 6*d.* per ton; freight to New York, 2*s.*, a total of 11*s.* 6*d.* per ton, equal to $2.80 per ton, instead of $5.88, as represented by Moulton & Co.

In Boston the lump salt could be landed for $2.56 per ton.

No better proof is required than the figures given in Messrs. Moulton & Co.'s circular to demonstrate that at all of our Atlantic seaports, and at such points as are reached therefrom by water, American salt could not be sold if foreign salt is admitted free.

Seventy per cent in value of the dutiable salt imported to the United States in 1892 was shipped by one company, the British Salt Union, and it is in the interest of this trust that the circular is issued.

This statement being in reply to the circular issued by Moulton & Co., we append a copy of the latter herewith, in order that a full comparison of the statements may be made. For more complete information and data on salt please refer to our published statement, "Relative to the duty on salt."

GEORGE H. SMITH,
Crystal Salt Company, Warsaw, N. Y.
SAMUEL T. KERR,
Kerr Salt Company, Rock Glen, N. Y.
EDWARD W. BROWN,
Retsof Mining Company, 146 Broadway, N. Y.

EXHIBIT I.

"Mineral Resources of the United States" for the year 1892, by David T. Day, Chief of the Division of Mining Statistics, published by the Department of the Interior, under heading "Salt," says:

"The amount of salt produced in the United States in 1892 was unprecedentedly large, reaching a total of 11,698,890 barrels, against 9,987,945 barrels in 1891.

"But, although the yield was the largest yet obtained, the business was not by any means satisfactory to the producers. Sharp competition for trade during the past two years has cut the prices to such low figures that profits have almost disappeared, and a number of the smaller concerns have been compelled to close their works. This struggle for trade, while it has worked some injury, has also resulted beneficially in the improvement of the quality of the refined salt product for table and dairy use. The refinement of salt has been made the subject of conscientious and intelligent study. New and improved methods have been introduced, the producers guarding each discovery made with jealous secrecy, and the results have been exceedingly gratifying. No more conclusive evidence of the improvement in the quality of the domestic salt is necessary than a study of the table imports, which show a steady decrease in value since 1885. The total value of the salt imported into the United States in 1885 was over a million and a half dollars, and in 1892 $774,806, a decline of nearly 50 per cent. This decrease has been almost entirely in refined salt, which in 1892, when the total imports were valued at $488,108, a difference of $541,931, or 52½ per cent.

"An analysis of the production in 1892 by States shows that the most noteworthy increases in production have been in Kansas, 624,564 barrels; in New York, 632,529 barrels; and in Utah, 323,471 barrels. Gains are also shown in the outputs of California, Illinois, and Louisiana. Michigan suffered the heaviest loss, the product decreasing from 3,966,784 barrels in 1891 to 3,829,478 barrels in 1892, a decline of 137,306 barrels. The salt production of Michigan depends very largely upon the lumber trade, many of the lumber mills using their exhaust steam to evaporate the brine and some using the otherwise wasted sawdust as a fuel for the direct-heat process. Owing to the low prices for salt prevailing in 1892 these concerns only ran their salt works while the sawmills were running. Several independent salt works which are operated in good seasons were closed down entirely during 1892. Nevada's output decreased from 60,799 barrels in 1891 to 22,929 barrels in 1892, the loss being due to the closing of silver smelting works, which consumed a large proportion of the product."

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { Mis Doc. No. 202.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JUNE 5, 1894.—Ordered to be printed, to accompany S. 2000. Calendar No., 464.

Mr. PETTIGREW presented the following

LETTER FROM THE SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR TRANSMITTING THE OPINION OF ACTING COMMISSIONER OF INDIAN AFFAIRS AS TO "A BILL GRANTING TO THE BRAINERD AND NORTHERN MINNESOTA RAILWAY COMPANY A RIGHT OF WAY THROUGH THE LEECH LAKE INDIAN RESERVATION IN THE STATE OF MINNESOTA."

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
Washington, May 15, 1894.

SIR: I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt, by reference from your committee, for the opinion of this Department thereon, of S. 2000, "A bill granting to the Brainerd and Northern Minnesota Railway Company a right of way through the Leech Lake Indian Reservation, in the State of Minnesota."

In response thereto I transmit herewith copy of a communication from the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, dated the 14th instant, to whom the matter was referred.

The Commissioner states that the bill conforms substantially to the many recent acts of Congress granting railway companies rights of way through Indian reservations outside of the Indian Territory, and that his office sees no objection to the passage of the bill, unless objection exists by reason of the company being granted the right to load logs on the railroad at the points in said reservation where the same may run adjacent or contiguous to the waters of Leech Lake. This is not regarded as a very serious obstacle, however, inasmuch as, according to the bill, the road would probably touch the lake at but one point.

I concur in the views of the Commissioner and see no objection to the passage of the bill.

Very respectfully,

HOKE SMITH,
Secretary.

The CHAIRMAN COMMITTEE ON INDIAN AFFAIRS,
U. S. Senate.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
OFFICE OF INDIAN AFFAIRS,
Washington, D. C., May 14, 1894.

SIR: I am in receipt, by Department reference of May 10, 1894, for report, of Senate bill 2000, "A bill granting to the Brainerd and Northern Minnesota Railway Company a right of way through the

Leech Lake Indian Reservation in the State of Minnesota." It appears that said bill was referred to you by Hon. James K. Jones, chairman Committee on Indian Affairs, U. S. Senate, for the opinion of the Department.

Section 1 of the bill grants the company the right of way for the extension of its road, with necessary side tracks and switches, and for a telegraph and telephone line through the Leech Lake Indian Reservation, in said State, commencing at a point in the south line of the reservation and extending northwesterly through sections 13, 12, 1, and 2 of township 141, range 31, to a point in the west line of said reservation in said section 2, with the right to load logs on said railroad at the points in said reservation where the same may run adjacent or contiguous to the waters of Leech Lake.

The bill further provides that the right of way shall be 50 feet in width on each side of the central line of the road, and that the company shall also have the right to take from the lands adjacent to the line of said road material, stone, and earth necessary for the construction of said railroad; also grounds adjacent to such right of way for station buildings, depots, machine shops, side tracks, turn-outs, and water stations, not to exceed in amount 200 feet in width and 3,000 feet in length for each station, to an extent not exceeding one station within the limits of the reservation.

In reporting on the bill, I have the honor to inform you that it substantially conforms to the many recent acts of Congress granting railway companies rights of way through Indian reservations outside of the Indian Territory; and this office sees no objection to its passage unless objection exists by reason of the company being granted the right to load logs on said railroad at the points on said reservation where the same may run adjacent or contiguous to the waters of Leech Lake. This office, however, does not regard this as a very serious objection, in view of the fact that the road, according to the bill, would cross the lower point of the lake in said section 2, and would probably touch it only at the one point. In case the Department does not regard this as an obstacle, this office sees no objection to the passage of the bill.

Attention is invited to the fact that the bill grants the company right of way only through sections 13, 12, 1, and 2, of township 141, range 31.

The bill is herewith returned.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

FRANK C. ARMSTRONG,
Acting Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 203.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JUNE 6, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Appropriations and ordered to be printed.

Mr. JONES, of Arkansas, presented the following

PETITION FROM E. E. WHITE, FOR RELIEF.

To the Congress of the United States:

Your petitioner respectfully states that from the 19th day of October, 1885, to the 21st day of February, 1889, he was a duly and regularly appointed, qualified, and acting special U. S. Indian agent. As such special agent the act of July 4, 1880, allowed him a fixed per diem for traveling and incidental expenses as follows:

> Special agents shall be allowed three dollars per diem for traveling and incidental expenses while traveling or actually on duty in the field, exclusive of cost of transportation and sleeping-car fare.

On the 18th day of October, 1887, he was assigned, as such special agent, temporarily to the charge of the Kiowa, Comanche, and Wichita Indian Agency, in the Indian Territory, by Indian Inspector Marcum, whose report thereof was as follows:

[Telegram.]

ANADARKO, IND. T., *October 18, 1887.*

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR,
Washington, D. C.:

I have this day suspended Agent J. Lee Hall from office and have placed Special U. S. Indian Agent Eugene E. White temporarily in charge of agency. Report sent by mail.

MARCUM, *Inspector.*

Afterwards, to wit, on the 1st day of December, 1887, and while still in charge of said agency, he was ordered peremptorily by the Secretary of the Interior to report in person in Washington immediately, the order reading as follows:

[Telegram.]

WASHINGTON, D. C., *December 1, 1887.*

Special Agent WHITE,
Anadarko, Ind. T.:

Report here in person immediately.

L. Q. C. LAMAR,
Secretary.

In obedience to that order he arrived in Washington, December 7, 1887, and remained here until the 1st day of February, 1888, on which day he departed from this city to return to the said agency, "to continue the duty on which he was engaged there," in obedience to the following letter from the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, to wit:

OFFICE OF INDIAN AFFAIRS,
Washington, January 31, 1888.

SIR: Having completed the duty for which you were ordered to report here by office telegram of 1st ultimo, you will immediately return to Kiowa, Comanche, and Wichita Agency, Ind. T., to continue the duty on which you are engaged there.

Respectfully,

J. D. C. ATKINS,
Commissioner.

E. E. WHITE,
Special Indian Agent, Present.

He continued in temporary charge of said Agency until September 10, 1888, when he was relieved by Agent Myers, in obedience to the following notice and order of the Indian Office, to wit:

INDIAN OFFICE, *Washington, August 28, 1888.*

SIR: The President has appointed William D. Myers to be agent for the Indians of the Kiowa Agency in the Indian Territory. * * * By letter of this date he was instructed to relieve you without delay. * * *

Respectfully,

A. B. UPSHAW,
Acting Commissioner.

E. E. WHITE,
Special Agent, Kiowa Agency, Ind. T.

In the final settlement of his account as such special agent by the honorable Second Comptroller, on the 23d instant, credit was refused him for the said per diem for the time that he was so on duty here in Washington under the order of the Secretary of the Interior as aforesaid, amounting to the sum of $165, the ruling being that—

Washington may very properly be regarded as the home of all Government agents and employés, and while in this city such agents can not be said to be on duty in the field.

The truth is, your petitioner was performing double duty. He was not in Washington on leave of absence, nor of his own volition, and he was not ordered here by the Commissioner of Indian Affairs, his immediate superior in office, nor for duty in the Indian Office, but by the Secretary of the Interior himself, and for special, important, and arduous service in his Department and before the President.

And when he was thus required to come to Washington he was not relieved of the charge of the said Indian agency, nor of his liability on his official bond for the conduct of the same. In every week of his said detention here in Washington receipts for large quantities of annuity goods and subsistence supplies were sent to him by the clerk of the said agency for his signature, and he signed them as he was required by law and the orders of his superiors in office to do. In fact, during the whole of the time that he was so detained here he was actually in charge of the said agency and performing all the duties that were required by law to be performed by the special agent in charge in person, and the said agency was being conducted entirely upon his official responsibility, as the records of the Indian Office show.

Special agents are held to be on duty in the field and entitled to the per diem while in charge of an agency. But the effect of the decision in this case is to deny your petitioner credit for the per diem both in

Washington and at the said agency, which seems to him most grievously unjust and contrary to the spirit of the law above quoted. By refusing him this credit a balance of $95.51 is found against him in favor of the Government.

To allow this credit there would be a balance of $69.49 in his favor. And above and beyond his right to the credit as special agent in charge of an agency for the time being, your petitioner respectfully contends that while he was on special, temporary, and irregular duty here in Washington, he was "on duty in the field" in the spirit of the law, and entitled to the per diem. His home was at Prescott, Ark., as it is now, and not in Washington. The law did not require him to live in Washington, nor fix his place of duty there, nor at any other particular place, nor prescribe any regular or permanent duty for him to perform. His very purpose under the law was to be employed in locomotion, and at special, temporary, and irregular service.

His field of duty embraced all the States and Territories, including the District of Columbia and the city of Washington, and he was required to go anywhere and everywhere that he was ordered by his superiors in office, and any place and every place within the boundaries or jurisdiction of the United States where he happened to be so ordered on duty, as he was in this case, except at his home, wherever it may actually have been was to him "in the field" in the sense that it subjected him to the extra expense for which the per diem was intended to indemnify him. Your petitioner does not except Washington, because, as this city was not in fact his home, it was to him as much in the field in fact and in the spirit of the law as he views it as any Indian agency. The fact that it is the capital and the headquarters of the Indian Bureau does not alter the case a particle. The fact that he happened to be ordered here on duty for a short time did not make it his home any more than his being ordered to an Indian agency for temporary duty there made that place his home.

It is manifest that Congress realized the impossibility for special agents to remain at their homes, no matter where they might be located, and perform the duties required of them; and it is obvious that the reason for allowing them a fixed per diem for personal expenses was to put them on an equal footing with officers and employés whose places of duty are fixed, and who may live with their families or at permanent rates of board, while the special agents are compelled to support their families at home and live themselves separately from them at expensive transient rates. Of course, if a special agent was on official duty at his home, as, for instance, if he actually lived in Washington and was ordered here on duty, or if he lived at an Indian agency, or anywhere else, and was ordered there on duty, he would not be entitled to the per diem for the time that he remained on duty there. Nor would he be entitled to the per diem for any time that he was not on duty, as, for instance, if he was absent from duty, either with leave or without leave; or was on furlough, or laid off by the Department, or was without orders, as, for instance, if the Department had nothing for him to do for the time being. And these, your petitioner holds, are the only limitations that ought to be placed upon the words "on duty in the field."

But the petitioner respectfully submits that whether, under a strict construction of the statute relating to said per diem he is entitled to credit therefor or not, that under all the facts and circumstances in his case he is fairly and equitably entitled to the credit.

Wherefore the petitioner respectfully prays that he be allowed credit for the said sum of $165, and that of that amount he be paid $69.49, the residue of the said sum of $165 that will be due him after offsetting the said balance of $95.51 found against him by the refusal of said credit.

Very respectfully,

E. E. WHITE.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *May 25, 1894.*

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 204.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JUNE 7, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. HOAR submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on the Judiciary be directed to inquire into the justice and equity of the claim of the United States against the estate of the late Leland Stanford, and to report, as soon as may be, whether it be expedient that such claim should be forthwith relinquished and put at rest.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 205.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JUNE 9, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on the District of Columbia and ordered to be printed.

Mr. WALSH presented the following

MEMORANDUM OF RESOLUTIONS PASSED BY THE SOUTHERN IMMIGRATION CONGRESS, HELD AT AUGUSTA, GA., MAY 29, 30, AND 31, 1894.

Resolved, That the Southern Immigration Congress earnestly recommend to the Congress of the United States the establishment of a permanent exposition at the National Capital in which the products and resources of the several States of the Union may be fitly and properly displayed, and we urge upon the legislatures of the various States an appropriation of the money necessary to establish and maintain this most practical method of bringing to public attention the resources of our common country.

That the Congress of the United States is earnestly urged to make such appropriations as may be needed to carry into effect the recommendations of this Congress.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JUNE 11, 1894.—Ordered to be printed. To accompany amendment by Mr. Morrill to H. R. 6748.

Mr. MORRILL presented the following:

PAPERS IN RELATION TO THE AMENDMENT PROPOSED BY MR. MORRILL TO THE NAVAL APPROPRIATION BILL (H. R. 6748.)

A.

Budget of the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, with corresponding appropriations for the support of the Naval Observatory, Washington.

Greenwich Royal Observatory.		Corresponding appropriations for the Naval Observatory.	
Astronomer, Royal	£1,000	Appropriations in legislative bill	$51,140
Chief assistant	600	Salaries of Superintendent and 4 professors appropriated in naval appropriation bill for of the Navy	17,500
8 first and second class assistants	2,172		
Clerk and computers	895		
Labor and contingents	1,232		
	5,899		68,640
	$28,707	The work of this branch at the Naval Observatory is in charge of line officers paid from the naval appropriation.	
Magnetic and meteorological branch	£1,270		
	$6,182		
Special expenses for the international photographic map of the heavens	£500	No special work of this sort is done at the Naval Observatory.	
	$2,433		

B.

Statement of the ordinary work of the Observatory.

If we try to compare the work of ill-endowed establishments with that of the Naval Observatory, as annually reported upon by the superintendent, we learn by the last report that chronometers are carefully tested for changes of temperature, that sextants, octants, and other nautical instruments are supplied to vessels of the Navy, and that the time of noon is daily sent over the telegraph wires. These operations do not seem to involve any great expense, or to call for a high order of science. In the matter of astronomical work and results it must be confessed that the report seems rather meager.

C.

Letter from Prof. Asaph Hall, in 1892, to Senator Hale, of Maine.

WASHINGTON, *April 23, 1892.*

SIR: Having been requested to present to your committee my personal opinions on the management of the Naval Observatory, I have the honor to submit the following statement:

My term of service at the Naval Observatory extended from 1862 to 1891, first as an aid or assistant astronomer and afterwards as a professor. During this period the Observatory had 12 superintendents, all of them line officers of the Navy. Some of these gentlemen were very able and distinguished men, although but few of them had more than a general knowledge of astronomy. My relations with the superintendents were pleasant, and I have no complaint to make of lack of opportunity to do astronomical work. Still, the frequent change of superintendent and his want of technical knowledge are defects in the present system.

The history of the Naval Observatory shows what we might anticipate, that it is good astronomers who make a good observatory. When this Observatory was established in 1845 Profs. Coffin, Kieth, and Hubbard were appointed, and they started the Observatory in astronomical work. This impulse died out in 1851, so that for ten years the Observatory was nearly dead in astronomical matters. The scientific life was restored in 1861 by the appointment of astronomers. This can be done again, and it is the only way by which the Observatory can be made what it ought to be. It has been objected to the control of the Observatory by astronomers that it would soon become the tool of a few greedy and unscrupulous men, but this is a danger to which all Government offices are subject, and I am sure astronomers can be trusted in this matter. What the Observatory needs above all things is a body of good astronomers. The buildings and instruments are small matters compared with having men who know how to use them, and who are competent to make the investigations required in astronomy.

Very respectfully,

ASAPH HALL,
2715 N Street, N W.

Senator HALE,
Senate Naval Committee.

D.

Letters from Profs. Gould, Chandler, Young, and Boss.

16 CRAGIE STREET,
Cambridge, Mass., May 15, 1894.

DEAR SIR: Your letter of the 4th instant merits the most earnest and mature consideration, and I have tried to give it the attention which so important a subject deserves. I have also consulted privately two of my astronomical friends, the most competent in the country to pronounce on such a matter.

The result that I have to lay before you is based largely on the consideration of what would be requisite to keep in efficient activity the

present instrumental equipment of the Observatory, which consists principally of 2 equatorial telescopes, 2 meridian circles, and a prime-vertical transit instrument. It provides what appears to be an entirely sufficient corps of observers, as well as the needed force of computers, for making and reducing the observations with these instruments. If a less degree of activity were contemplated for the Observatory, one of these instruments could be allowed to lie idle and the expense thus proportionately reduced; and yet the output of work would still be extremely creditable.

The estimate is as follows:

Director	$5,000
Vice-director	3,500
Professor of astronomy	3,000
Professor of astronomy	3,000
Assistant professor of astronomy	2,000
Assistant professor of astronomy	1,800
Assistant professor of astronomy	1,600
Assistant (also as clerk)	1,200
Assistant	1,200
Computer	900
Computer	900
Computer	720
Computer	720
Assistant clerk	720
Total	26,262

Besides a certain sum, say, $1,500, should be appropriated for use at the discretion of the director, for special investigations and computations.

The force of engineers, watchmen, and laborers might, for the present, be left as now, until the new director had opportunity to examine the situation and reorganize on a more economical basis. He should be instructed to report on such a plan as soon after this appointment as practicable.

If it were desirable to drop one of the instruments above mentioned from active use and organize on a more economical basis the above estimate could be cut down, say, $5,000.

The present provision for an instrument-maker is a useless one, and the existing appropriation for his position could easily be dropped.

The above scale of salaries does not seem to be above what is necessary to secure entirely competent men. The salary of the director could hardly be made smaller than the sum named without making it very difficult to induce anyone fit for it to accept the position. It would be dangerous to make it larger because the temptation to place hunters and politicians.

The essential element in the reorganization, however, is that the director should be a professional astronomer. This is a *sine qua non.* It is quite as important also that the naval officers, as such, should be dropped. A naval officer, as such, has no more qualification for an astronomical position than he has for one in a manufacturing establishment. The idea that he has such qualification, by virtue of his profession, is a fundamental error, absurd in the extreme, which has long been assiduously cultivated and fostered by aim in the Congressional mind, and has been entirely responsible for the past and present deplorable state of affairs with regard to the Observatory.

The above reply, I think, covers, as well as I am able, the inquiries of your letter. I feel impelled, however, to take the liberty of introducing another topic closely allied to it. I understand that there is now pending an appropriation of $6,500 for a new altazimuth instrument for the

Observatory, and also one of $2,000 for a new 12-inch object glass. These requisitions seem so wasteful and unnecessary that I desire to enter a protest against them, which I am confident would be earnestly seconded by every competent astronomer in the country. It is ridiculous to spend more money for instruments in an already overequipped institution, especially for instruments of extremely doubtful astronomical utility; and above all when the present instruments are not properly and fully utilized, some of them not at all, and when it is nearly certain that the new altazimuth asked for would not be used if it were provided.

The Observatory is already abundantly provided with instruments for use in producing actual astronomical results.

The thanks, not only of astronomers, but of all educated and intelligent constituents the country over will earnestly bid you Godspeed in the endeavor to reform the organization management of an institution which has hitherto been conducted in a manner to humiliate our national pride.

Yours, very respectfully,

S. C. CHANDLER.

Hon. JUSTIN S. MORRILL,
Washington, D. C.

PRINCETON, N. J., *May 16, 1894.*

DEAR SIR: In reply to yours of the 14th I must say frankly that in my judgment the past work of the U. S. Naval Observatory does not seem to me to compare favorably with that done at most of the other great national institutions of a similar kind; nor have the results been at all commensurate with the expenditure.

There has been some admirable work done at Washington—that of Prof. Hall for instance; but on the whole the Observatory has not reached the reasonable standard of efficiency.

In my opinion, this is mainly due to the absurd system of organization, which puts at its head a seaman, with nothing more than a seaman's knowledge of astronomy, and changes *him* every three or four years. It would be just as sensible to put a college professor of Greek in charge of an ironclad or a navy-yard and then turn him out if he began to learn something. I think all the scientific men in the country (in the *world*, for that matter) are unanimous in the opinion that the head of an astronomical observatory should be an eminent astronomer (though other qualifications are also necessary), and that his position should be sufficiently permanent to secure continuity of plan and method in the operations of the institution.

Thanking you for this opportunity to free my mind when it may be of use to do so, I remain, with the deepest respect,

Yours, very truly,

C. A. YOUNG.

Hon. JUSTIN S. MORRILL, U. S. S.,
Washington, D. C.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., *May 17, 1894.*

DEAR SIR: The inquiries in your letter of the 14th instant, relative to the Government Observatory at Washington, seem to make it my *duty* to reply frankly and freely.

I will therefore say that I do not think it would be maintained by any person competent to judge, and familiar with the facts, that the results of the U. S. Naval Observatory has ever been commensurate with its outlays, or such as to entitle it to take a high rank among the leading observatories of the world, whether national or not.

With the exception of a single college observatory, I suppose it to be the most richly equipped and expensively maintained of any institution of the sort in the present or the past; but it would hardly be claimed that it has ever been preeminent for its contributions to astronomy, as regards either quality or quantity. This statement is in no way regardless of the fact that astronomers of distinguished attainments and high reputation have been employed there. There have unquestionably been such assistants; yet it is my assured conviction that what they have achieved has been in spite of their connection with the institution, and that they would have accomplished more for their science elsewhere even with inferior instrumental facilities. And notwithstanding the luster they have conferred upon the institution, it has never within my memory been one in which an American astronomers, devoted to his science, would take just pride.

The explanation is not far to seek, and suggests its own remedy. Some three years ago a joint effort was made by the few men in the country who devote themselves to astronomy as their chief object in life in the hope of persuading Congress to place the Observatory under the charge of astronomers. They would not deem themselves fitted to command ships or squadrons, although astronomers have provided the methods by which these are navigated, and computed the data requisite for the purpose. Analogous considerations would naturally suggest that a naval career is hardly the preparation for the management of an observatory, and this opinion has been corroborated by the history of the Washington Observatory, to an extent, indeed, which might not have been anticipated.

Naval executive methods are not so applicable to scientific researches as to many other pursuits; and scientific investigations are conspicuous among those which require technical knowledge and training for the proper assignment and control of work.

The endeavors of American astronomers to which I have alluded were unsuccessful. The astronomers of the United States are few and widely scattered, while naval influence at Washington is extensive and very powerful. The Observatory is apparently looked upon as a perquisite for Navy officers, and a strong *esprit du corps* is enlisted in the maintenance of the present state of affairs. Thus the astronomers become disheartened and hopeless of success under the circumstances; and they desisted from their effort, hoping to use their energies in ways promising more benefit to their science than circumstances indicated for this.

These remarks comprise the substance of the only general reply which I can make to the inquiries with which you have honored me. So long as the Observatory is not under astronomical guidance and control success can be expected in the future as little as in the past. And of all possible modes of administration it seems to me that military methods are least conducive to high scientific achievements.

I am, my dear sir, with highest respect,

Very sincerely, yours,

B. A. GOULD.

Hon. JUSTIN S. MORRILL,
U. S. Senate.

DUDLY OBSERVATORY,
Albany, N. Y., May 22, 1894.

DEAR SIR: Yours of May 14, concerning the Naval Observatory, is received. For many years I have given study and reflection to this subject, and, I willingly submit my opinion in reference to the inquiries addressed to me.

How does its (the Naval Observatory's) work compare, past and present, in value and importance with that of the observatories of other leading nations?

In reply to this, the first of your questions, I am bound to say that the result of the suggested comparison is one in which no American astronomer can find satisfaction. As a whole, the work of that institution has been of indifferent quality. A very large part of it falls even below the grade of mediocrity. A little of it has been good or excellent.

Except for one or two brief periods of vigor, the work has been carried on in a dispirited way, as if the inevitable crudeness and insufficiency of the result had cast its depressing shadow in advance. Especially during the past twenty years has an air of discouragement seemed to pervade the Naval Observatory. While growing steadily more inefficient, it has lived on the reputation gained for it in former years through the unorganized efforts of individual astronomers of ability among its subordinates.

The Government has lately expended nearly $1,000,000 for the new Naval Observatory. A great part of this expenditure has been unwise. It has made us more ridiculous in the view of other nations. In this matter astronomers recognize no responsibility, for they protested against the enterprise. They are not in the least grateful for the liberality of the Government, for that liberality has been misdirected and is not in the interest of astronomical science. Furthermore, the claim that any considerable part of the appropriations for the Naval Observatory, past and present, is justifiable on the ground of proper or practicable benefit to the Navy must be repudiated by any naval officer competent to give an opinion. These appropriations are, in fact, ostensibly made for the promotion of astronomical science. Astronomers repudiate any claim that they have so resulted.

I proceed to the consideration of your second question, namely:

Is any change in system necessary to enable the new Observatory to take the high position in the scientific world which the nation has the right to expect of it?

If it is thought that the Observatory ought to take a high position in the scientific world, it follows as an obvious necessity that it must be managed by competent astronomers. I shall waste no words in exposition of this proposition. As the result of practical experience, it is adopted in every civilized nation except ours. In our country, outside of Washington, no other plan for the management of an observatory would be for a moment entertained by its governing powers.

Why the U. S. Government should pursue a different course has been a mystery, the only plausible explanation for which appears to involve a denial that our Naval Observatory was intended to be or that it is an astronomical institution. The official history of that institution, contained in public documents, sets this denial completely aside. Should an opposite view be maintained, however, it must then be admitted that, at the very least, four-fifths of all the moneys appropriated for the Naval Observatory have been wasted. Specific proof of this statement can be found in a study of the naval administration of other nations.

Any remedy for the conceded inefficiency of the Naval Observatory must begin with complete reorganization of that institution on a civilian basis. Evils have grown up under the existing system. The present plant, though beautiful in its exterior, is cumbersome; it is in many respects ill contrived; and it certainly entails a great expense for maintenance. How best to meet these disadvantages must be studied on the ground and with the friendly cooperation of the Department under which the observatory is to exist.

There is no reason why a scientific institution under the Government can not be managed with vigor and economy. The experience of other nations proves that this can be done. But, for the attainment of this end, other governments employ both the advice of their academies of science and the services of their ablest scientific men.

Our Government Observatory can not now gain prominent rank without a struggle. France, England, Germany, and Russia have been both wise and liberal in respect to the observatories maintained by those governments; but they are now even more zealous in this respect than they formerly were. France and England, especially, seem to be striving for a distinct supremacy in the promotion of astronomical investigation. In the Republic of France every observatory of consequence in the country, except one, is now supported wholly or in great part by the Government.

If the people so desire, there is no existing reason in the nature of things, and apart from an indefensible principle of organization, why our Government Observatory should not enter with credit this noble race for supremacy in the promotion of astronomical science. In my judgment there is no expenditure for the Government that the people would more readily and cheerfully sanction than one which might offer the possibility of national prestige in astronomical achievement.

I have the honor to be, with great respect, very truly, yours,

LEWIS BASS.

Hon. JUSTIN S. MORRILL,
Senator of the United States.

E.

Extract from Report of the Secretary of the Navy for 1892, p. 57.

NAVAL OBSERVATORY.

This establishment is remarkable among national observatories for the excellence of its site and the beauty and convenience of its buildings, and is exceeded by few in the richness of its material outfit. Its approach to completion has excited such wide interest, both at home and abroad, that the credit of the nation is deeply involved in securing for it a position in the scientific world corresponding to the magnitude of the sums which have been expended in its construction. The question of its proper organization is therefore again commended to the serious consideration of Congress. I have seen nothing to invalidate the opinion expressed in my last annual report that the attainment of the ends for which the Observatory was built requires that its work be planned by the best scientific talent that the Department can command and be directed by the ablest astronomer who will undertake the duty.

injurious to its reputation in proportion to the greatness of the
tution.

The revolution which the last thirty years have witnessed i
requirements of marine warfare on the one hand and in the met
and appliances of astronomical research on the other have quite
ered that close connection between the naval and the astronomical
fessions which led to placing the old Observatory under the directi
a naval officer and regarding it as a naval station; and the profess
attainments now exacted of our officers and necessary to their effic
include so wide a rage of subjects and extend to such minute d
that they have no time to devote to matters so far outside the li
their profession as those which pertain to the management of a
modern astronomical observatory.

F.

Royal Astronomical Society of London.

This society has on its rolls not exceeding 50 foreign assoc
elected on account of the importance of their work in the fie
astronomy. The actual total number in February, 1894, was 4
of whom 13 were Americans, as follows:

Boss, Lewis	Albany, N. Y.
Chandler, S. C	Cambridge, Mass.
Elkin, W. L	New Haven, Conn
Gould, B. A	Cambridge, Mass.
Hall, Asaph	Washington, D. C
Hill, George W	West Nyack, N. Y
Holden, E. S	Lick Observatory
Langley, S. P	Washington, D. C
Newcomb, Simon	Washington, D. C
Newton, H. A	New Haven, Conn
Pickering, E. C	Cambridge, Mass.
Safford, T. H	Williams College,
Young, C. A	Princeton, N. J.

l life learned in the science of astronomy, to be appointed by the sident, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, and shall ive an annual salary of five thousand dollars; he may also occupy dwelling house near the Observatory free of rent. The Superin- lent aforesaid is hereby authorized and directed, with the approval ıe Secretary of the Navy, to reorganize said Observatory establish- t and to make such regulations as may be expedient in relation to Observatory and its subordinate officers, professors, and other loyés: *Provided*, That after January first, eighteen hundred and ty-five, the total salaries and annual expenditures shall be adjusted basis of not exceeding fifty thousand dollars per annum.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 207.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JUNE 11, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. CHANDLER submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Secretary of the Treasury be directed to inform the Senate, so far as the records of the Department enable him to do so, to what extent the system now prevails under which immigrants from Italy, or other countries, fall into the hands of agents or bankers who entice or force them into contracts or customs under which their labor is farmed out to their employers, commonly called the padrone system; and also to inform the Senate whether any special measures are being taken or contemplated by the Treasury Department for breaking up every such system; whether the Department has sufficient funds at its disposal derived from the head moneys, or whether additional appropriations are needed for the suppression and extermination of such systems, and for the due enforcement of the laws prohibiting the importation of contract laborers.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 208.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JUNE 12, 1894.—Ordered to be printed

Mr. ALLEN submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Whereas E. R. Chapman, a witness, was heretofore duly summoned by a select committee of the Senate, and being lawfully required to testify before said committee, has, as appears by the report of said committee, refused to answer pertinent and material questions propounded to him by said committee: Therefore,

Resolved, That the President of the Senate issue his warrant in due form under his hand and the seal of the Senate, directed to the Sergeant-at-Arms of the Senate, commanding him forthwith to arrest and bring to the bar of the Senate the body of said E. R. Chapman, to show cause why he should not be punished for contempt, and in the meantime to keep the said Chapman in custody to await the further order of the Senate.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 209.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JUNE 13, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Commerce and ordered to be printed.

Mr. CALL submitted the following

CONCURRENT RESOLUTION:

Resolved by the Senate, the House of Representatives concurring, That the Secretary of War is directed to cause a survey and estimate to be made of the cost of dredging the bar at Everett, in the State of Washington, so as to make a fresh-water harbor in or near the river with the greatest depth of water practicable: *Provided,* That if the information necessary to make such estimate is now in the possession of the Chief of Engineers it may be made without any further survey. The Secretary of War is directed to cause such estimate to be made and reported to Congress without delay.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 210.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JUNE 14, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on the Census and ordered to be printed.

Mr. KYLE presented the following

ARTICLE ON "CENSUS DISTRIBUTION OF THE GOLD AND SILVER BY STATES," PREPARED BY FREDERICK C. WAITE.

WHAT MEMBERS OF CONGRESS SAY.

I have read the manuscript copy of an article entitled "Census distribution of gold and silver by States," prepared by Mr. Frederick C. Waite, late special agent of Eleventh Census in charge of statistics of true wealth. Mr. Waite's ability and standing as a statistician are a sufficient guarantee as to the reliability of his statements and the value of his contribution to the statistics of the country. The article should receive a wide circulation.

W. M. SPRINGER.

I have read your article entitled "Census distribution of gold and silver by States," and was instructed as well as interested. I have frequently charged that the people are systematically deprived of truthful information concerning the amount of money in circulation in the United States, and your showing makes the matter plain.

W. A. PEFFER.

I think it most excellent. Mr. Waite, from his service as statistician of the Census Bureau and his high educational standing, is well fitted to perform the task he has undertaken.

JAMES H. KYLE.

CENSUS DISTRIBUTION OF THE GOLD AND SILVER BY STATES.

The long-expected census volumes are at last beginning to appear. Their tens of thousand of pages of facts and fiction will soon go forth to wield an influence, directly or indirectly, upon the thoughts of the whole American people. What kind of an influence will it be? Are those pages to enlighten or to deceive is a question of vital importance to every American citizen.

Newspapers, magazines, and party platforms are read with a reservation; laws come and go; but the census volumes come to stay, and to be consulted by our leaders of thought, who, not having so much as seen the inside of the Census Office, never think of questioning the accuracy of the figures. Much less do they consider themselves competent to undertake the delicate task of passing judgment upon its hundred million ems of figures and text. Hence it seems necessary that someone who has had a knowledge of the inside workings of the Census Office should take the trouble to give the American people the *benefit of a few plain facts*, especially as the Eleventh Census has cost

the American toilers three-fourths as many million dollars as all the previous censuses combined.

It is unfair to criticise the preliminary census figures, and especially such as are labled "untrue." A bulletin has, however, recently appeared which is labled "true." At any rate the word "true" is repeated seventeen times in the little bulletin numbered 379. Of the dozens of columns of figures labeled "*true*" in large capitals, all, as I propose to prove, are full of errors. Leaving for later consideration the columns of figures in which the errors roll up into the thousands of millions, I will in this preliminary article confine myself to a criticism of the figures in the fifth column of table 1, which purports to give the amount of "gold and silver, coin and bullion," by States. These figures were entirely worked up under the supervision of Col. Carroll D. Wright, who says on page 2 that the total for the United States is the amount as reported by the Director of the Mint for June 30, 1890. It was $1,158,774,948, and was taken from page 162 of the Finance Report. By reading the millions in the following table, omitting the thousands, we may get an idea of how it was made up and where it was located:

Treasury	$667,901,379
National banks (July)	85,307,645
Other banks and in circulation	405,565,924
Total	1,158,774,948

On the first page of this bulletin Col. Wright says: "The amounts are distributed among the respective States where the property is located without reference to ownership." To see whether his statement be correct or incorrect concerning the very first item, we have but to turn to the report of the U. S. Treasurer. On pages 40 and 41 the Treasurer gives an itemized statement showing the exact location of this $667,901,379. He says that the amount of gold and silver in the subtreasury and assay office at New York City was $201,378,386. As Col. Wright puts the total in the State of New York at only $176,941,588, it is impossible that he included this $201,378,386 laying in the subtreasury and assay office at New York City.

The Treasurer says that the amount of gold and silver in the mint and subtreasury at Philadelphia was $94,429,652. The banks of Pennsylvania reported $12,146,848. As the amount in sight in Pennsylvania was the sum, or $106,576,500, it is plain that Col. Wright did not include them both, for his estimate of the total located in Pennsylvania was only $99,700,483. The mint and subtreasury at New Orleans, La., contained $26,496,874. Col. Wright, however, put the total in the State of Louisiana at only $17,785,914. In strange contrast are his figures for Mississippi. Although the total amount of coin in sight was only $147,264, he accredited the State with $19,365,860. This is nearly $2,000,000 more than he accredited to Louisiana, which had nearly two hundred times as much coin in sight as Mississippi, a larger number of white inhabitants, a smaller number of colored people, and very much more wealth.

In the Southern States the total in sight equaled only from 1 to 5 per cent of Col. Wright's estimate, whereas in every State containing an important subtreasury the amount in sight was even greater than Col. Wright's total.

We will now examine the basis upon which he put up his fallacious figures. A table on page 164 of the Finance Report gives, by States, the amount of gold coin in banks not national on December 31, 1889. The Report of the Comptroller of the Currency gives, on page 160, the

amounts of coin in national banks on October 2, 1890. Although these figures are not for June 30, the census date, they represent fairly well the location of the $116,687,392 in banks on that date; but this is only one-tenth of the total. It, however, represented all the coin in sight in each of the States except the few which contained subtreasuries. Had Col. Wright added, in the case of those few, the immense amounts in the branches of the Treasury located therein, he would have had an accurate statement of the location of seven-tenths of the gold and silver in the country as a basis for his estimate. He or his clerk, however, threw facts to the wind, and taking the figures giving the location of the one-tenth in banks added, not only in the case of the few States in which subtreasuries were located, but in the case of the others also, an amount equal to the coin certificates in the national banks located therein. He must have known that these certificates were not coin, and that the gold which the clearing-house certificates represented had been counted already, and, moreover, that as millions of the Treasury certificates were in States not containing a subtreasury, he by counting the certificates accredited the coin to the wrong State.

So much for the two-tenths. How did Col. Wright apportion the eight-tenths? Let the figures answer. Adding together these three items:

Coin in national banks (October)	$85,474,975
Gold in other banks	31,212,417
Certificates in national banks	110,433,884
He had	227,121,276
Subtracting it from the total	1,158,774,948
He had left	931,653,672

As though the whole of this vast amount of coin and bullion was in the pockets of the people, he divided by 62,622,250, the population of the United States, and found that the remaining eight-tenths equaled about a quarter of a cent less than $14.88 for each man, woman, and child in the country. He therefore computed his estimates of the amount of coin in each State by adding to the amount in sight, including coin certificates, an amount equal to $14.88 multiplied by the number of inhabitants in the State.

As we have the figures giving the actual distribution by States of not only the one-tenth in the banks reporting, but also of the six-tenths in the Treasury, we would be able to see how wide of the mark the "$14.88 per capita" apportionment scheme has lead Col. Wright, if we could find out how the remaining three-tenths, or, as we shall call it, the amount in circulation, was distributed among the various sections of the country.

As the total amount whose location is unknown was $374,186,177, it equaled for the whole country $5.97½ per capita. Using estimates of the amount on the Pacific slope made by the Director of the Mint, we see that east of the Rocky Mountains it did not average more than $5.50. The amount in the South was much less, probably only about $3 per capita, as may be inferred from a study of the facts at hand.

Of the moneys in national banks, which, by the way, are but the reflection of those in circulation, coin constituted in the South only two-sevenths of the total, while in the North, outside of cities with subtreasuries, it constituted three-sevenths. Strange as it may seem at first, an examination indicates that the ratio holds good concerning the moneys in circulation. Hence in the rural North, if the total circulation equaled $14 or $15 per capita the amount of coin is $6 or $6.44;

and if the total money in circulation in the South equaled $10.50 or $14, the amount of coin equaled $3 or $4 per capita. When we take into consideration the fact that the railroad companies alone held on June 30, 1890, $307,874,188 in cash and current assets combined, and that immense sums were in the tills of merchants and the vaults of corporations in our great cities, and that the total amount of money in the United States outside of the Treasury and the 11,000 banks equaled about $14.84 per capita, we must admit that these smaller figures are probably nearer the truth, if we are to make a proper allowance for the larger supply of money in our great cities.

Census guesses of per capita amount of gold and silver in each State paralleled by the facts.

	Census figuring.			Actual amount. That in banks and treasury plus $6, or $3 per capita.	Actual amount in treasury.
	Basis.		Census guess. Sum plus $14.88 per capita.		
	Coin certificates in national banks.	Coin in banks reporting.			
Rural South, 12	$0.1	$.1 to $.8	$15	$3	.....
Rural North, 16	.2	1. to 2.	17	8	.....
City States, 10	4.	3.	22	34	$24
Ohio	.3	1.	16	10	3
Illinois	2.	4.	20	12	2
Massachusetts	4.	3.	22	13	4
Missouri	1.	1.	17	15	8
Maryland	3.	1.	19	17	10
Pennsylvania	2.	2.	19	26	18
Louisiana	.7	.3	16	30	24
New York	12.	3.	30	42	34
California	.3	12.	27	*100	72
District of Columbia	7.	1.	23	754	767

* $16 in lieu of circulation.

In the third column of the foregoing table are the census figures giving the amount of gold and silver in the various sections reduced to a per capita basis. As already pointed out they were made up by adding to the sum of column 1, "coin certificates," and column 2, "coin in banks," $14.88 per capita in lieu of circulation. Columns 2 and 5, giving the amount reported by banks and by the Treasury, are put in bold-faced type to indicate that they are fact and that all estimates which are to be of value must be founded upon them as a basis. Hence the fourth column, which is an approximate statement of the actual amount located in each section is made up by adding to their sum the amounts already agreed upon in lieu of circulation, namely, $3 per capita in the rural South and $6 in the other States east of the Rocky Mountains.

From the second column we see that in the rural States of the South the total amount of coin in sight ranged from 1 dime per capita in Mississippi and Arkansas to nearly 8 dimes in Texas and Kentucky. Hence, as the average per capita amount in circulation, that is, the amount not in sight east of the Rocky Mountains is only $5.50 and probably not over $3 in the rural South, the total amount of gold and silver was probably only a few dimes over $3 per capita or only a fifth as great as the census guess. Nebraska, Minnesota, Connecticut, and Rhode Island had $2 per capita in sight and the other 12 States of the rural North $1. As the amount in circulation can not be

over $6 the total in none of these States was half as much as the census guess.

In the case of Ohio, Illinois, and Massachusetts we see by adding $6 per capita in lieu of circulation to the amount in the banks reporting and in the Treasury that the total is only three-fifths as great as the census guess. For Missouri and Maryland the census estimates are nearer the truth. When we come to Pennsylvania, Louisiana, and New York, as we have seen already, the census total was even less than the amount in sight.

California is credited with only $32,674,449, although the mint and subtreasury at San Francisco alone contained $93,642,013. The banks reported $14,285,695, and the coin in circulation equaled about $16 per capita. Thus the total in the State was about $100 per capita, whereas the census guess is only $27.

To cap the climax Col. Wright put the total amount of "gold and silver coin and bullion" located in the District of Columbia at $5,266,300, although the Treasury building alone contained $176,647,933. It is a little surprising that the Commissioner of Labor, whose office has been for years diametrically across from the Treasury building, should have been totally ignorant of the fact that the Government had accumulated there the greatest pile of silver that had ever been heaped up in the whole history of mankind. Moreover, on the part of his chief census guesser, such ignorance is incredible, as he was actually employed in the Treasury for almost eighteen years and was the Assistant Secretary for two years.

We see, however, that it was the States with subtreasuries that contained the gold and silver which Col. Wright incorrectly apportioned among the rural States. He who would excuse such ignorance on the ground that the census guessers had imbibed their erroneous ideas from the people, can go down the street of any city in the land and accost the first ignorant fellow that he meets and ask him where the $1,200,000,000 of gold and silver in the country is located. The reply will be: "Vell, I dunno e'zactly, but I s'pose that a heap on't is held in New Yo'k, Philadelphy and San Francisky, and by the Gov'ment at Vashington." Such a reply would be in accordance with the opinions of the whole American people. It would be correct, because these four cities actually contained over half of all the gold and silver in the country, and three-fourths of the total that was in sight.

Moreover, it would be fairly accurate, whereas the census figures in the case of the District of Columbia are less than one-thirtieth of what they should be, and in the case of all but four States and Territories have missed the mark by upwards of 50 per cent, and in the South by from 300 to 400 per cent.

The deadly fact, however, is not that the census figures are erroneous, but as we will see in later articles that dozens of columns of figures in this and other census bulletins bear the imprint of a machine and not of a brain. When the total amount of coin and paper money outside of the Treasury and the 11,000 banks equaled only $14.84 per capita it was not a mark of brain power to suppose that the portion which was coin equaled $14.88. Neither did brains dictate that the amount in the South was as great as in California. Moreover, when the census-guesser came to the Indian Territory, just as we might have expected of a machine, he added to the amount of coin and certificates in the banks nothing in lieu of circulation, because the population table which he was using was blank for that Territory. In fact, the Territory had a seventh as many inhabitants as Mississippi, a seventh as much coin

in sight, and probably a seventh as much in circulation, and yet the census-guesser, by mechanically following his population table, accredited only one-thousandth as much coin to the Indian Territory as to Mississippi. The census-guessing machine which thus accredited nothing to the Indian Territory in lieu of circulation would have done likewise in the case of New York if the population table had been blank for that State.

Since the Census Office has published under the label *true* statements so diametrically opposed to truth, reason, and common sense, upon subjects concerning which the opinions of the people are fairly correct, what must we think of its management under the present head who has said repeatedly: "My friend Porter is not a statistician, but I stand for statistical integrity."

FREDERICK C. WAITE.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JUNE 16, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on the District of Columbia and ordered to be printed, to accompany amendment to H. R. 5481.

Mr. GALLINGER submitted the following:

[From Kate Field's Washington, Vol. 9, No. 23, Washington, D. C., June 6, 1894.]

FIRES IN DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

So many fires have occurred in the United States during the last five years as to have forced fire-insurance companies to increase their rates, in order to save themselves from bankruptcy. Though fires are less frequent in Washington City than in other large towns, they occur oftener than is imagined, as can be found out by investigation. If, for example, the parents knew that fire-insurance companies are constantly paying for damages incurred from fires in public schools, they would be more solicitous than they now are about the safety of their little ones. No fire alarms are attached to these schools, notwithstanding that the lives of 36,906 children are at stake, to say nothing of their teachers and attendants.

There are about 115 schoolhouses in the District of Columbia, insured for more than $1,000,000, representing two-thirds of their value. Some of these schoolhouses are in sorry condition, notably the high school at Georgetown, where scholars are warned of the danger of rushing up and down stairs after the manner of vigorous boys and girls. This information comes to me through one of the cleverest and best of women, who sends four children to the public schools, and who is therefore more cognizant of defects than I can be. What would happen at that schoolhouse if a fire broke out I shudder to think. Some of the brightest children in this or any other town are running risks that would not be tolerated if citizens were aroused as they should be.

How can these risks be reduced to a minimum? So easily as to make it a crime on the part of Congress not to act at once on suggestion. An instantaneous fire alarm exists so certain in its results as to win the hearty approval of the superintendent of the telegraph and telephone service of the District. He has thorough knowledge of its workings, for the good reason that it is attached as an auxiliary to the regular fire-alarm system under his supervision. Under certain circumstances, wherever this system is installed, insurance companies make greater reductions in rates than the cost of the alarm, hence saving of money by an actual protection to life and property is gained.

This important matter was brought before the Commissioners of the District several months ago. They replied, "We fully realize the situation. No one is so anxious for the safety of public schools as ourselves. *Gladly would* we introduce the instantaneous fire alarm were

we the umpires, but we have no money for the purpose. Unless Congress gives us an appropriation our hands are tied."

* * * * * * *

The question then arises, what sum is needed to protect 36,906 school children and two millions of property. So small a sum as to make the inaction of Congress as great a blunder as it is a crime. I have just learned that the Instantaneous Fire Alarm Company offer to put in 100 boxes for $2,000 for one year and for half that amount the second year. It can readily be seen, therefore, how little is needed to do right.

A decent regard for humanity should not only prompt Congress to immediate action as suggested, but should inspire the passage of a bill making the installation of the best fire alarm a necessity in all educational institutions, all places of amusement, and all structures where large bodies of people congregate, as in hotels, Government buildings, boarding and tenement houses. Seven thousand nine hundred and eleven District children attend private and parochial schools. Are these schools under public surveillance as they should be? Burn down the stairs and what becomes of the children?

Should Congress turn a deaf ear to this appeal, it will be the duty of the women of the capital to enter upon a crusade in the name of little children.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 212.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JUNE 18, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. VOORHEES submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Finance Committee of the Senate have authority to translate the proceedings of the Silver Commission held at Berlin in February and April, eighteen hundred and ninety-four, and report the same to the Senate.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 213.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JUNE 19, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. PEFFER submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on Post-Offices and Post-Roads be, and it is hereby, directed to prepare and report, as soon as practicable, a bill providing for the establishment of a system of public savings banks, to be conducted under surveillance of public officers in connection with the Post-Office Department.

O

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JUNE 20, 1894.—Ordered to be printed. Omit the part printed in brackets and insert the parts printed in *italics*.

Mr. GALLINGER submitted the following

AMENDMENTS

To the resolution submitted by Mr. PEFFER June nineteenth, eighteen hundred and ninety-four:

Resolved, That the Committee on Post-Offices and Post-Roads be, and it is hereby, directed to [prepare and report, as soon as practicable, a bill] *investigate and report upon the practicability and feasibility of* providing *by law* for the establishment of a system of public savings banks, to be conducted under surveillance of public officers in connection with the Post-Office Department.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 214.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JUNE 20, 1894.—Laid on the table and ordered to be printed.

Mr. HOAR presented the following

LETTER FROM CHIEF JUSTICE TANEY TO THE SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY, RELATIVE TO AN ACT TAXING THE SALARIES OF THE JUDGES OF THE COURTS OF THE UNITED STATES.

WASHINGTON, *February 15, 1863.*

SIR: I find that the act of Congress of the last session, imposing a tax of 3 per cent on the salaries of all officers in the employment of the United States, has been construed, in your Department, to embrace judicial officers, and the amount of the tax has been deducted from the salaries of the judges.

The first section of the third article of the Constitution provides that—

> The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court and such inferior courts as Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges of both the Supreme and inferior courts shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall at stated times receive for their services a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

The act in question, as you interpret it, diminishes the compensation of every judge 3 per cent, and if it can be diminished to that extent by the name of a tax, it may, in the same way, be reduced from time to time at the pleasure of the legislature.

The judiciary is one of the three great departments of the Government created and established by the Constitution. Its duties and powers are specifically set forth, and are of a character that requires it to be perfectly independent of the other departments; and in order to place it beyond the reach, and above even the suspicion, of any such influence, the power to reduce their compensation is expressly withheld from Congress and excepted from their powers of legislation.

Language could not be more plain than that used in the Constitution. It is moreover one of the most important and essential provisions. For the article which limits the power of the legislative and executive branches of the Government, and those which provide safeguards for the protection of the citizen in his person and property, would be of little value without a judiciary to uphold and maintain them which was free from every influence, direct or indirect, that might by possibility, in times of political excitement, warp their judgments.

Upon these grounds I regard an act of Congress retaining in the Treasury a portion of the compensation of the judges as unconstitutional and void, and I should not have troubled you with this letter if there was any mode by which the question could be decided in a judi-

cial proceeding. But all the judges of the courts of the United States have an interest in the question, and could not therefore with propriety undertake to hear and decide it.

I am, however, not willing to leave it to be inferred from my silence that I admit the right of the legislature to diminish, in this or any other mode, the compensation of the judges when once fixed by law, and my silence would naturally, perhaps necessarily, be looked upon as acquiescence on my part in the power claimed and exercised under this act of Congress, and would be regarded as a precedent establishing the principle that the legislature may, at its pleasure, regulate the salaries of the judges of the courts of the United States, and may reduce their compensation whenever Congress may think proper.

Having been honored with the highest judicial station under the Constitution, I feel it to be more especially my duty to uphold and maintain the constitutional rights of that department of the Government, and not by any act or word of mine have it to be supposed that I acquiesce in a measure that displaces it from the independent position assigned to it by the statesmen who framed the Constitution. And in order to guard against any such inference I present to you this respectful, but firm and decided, remonstrance against the authority you have exercised under this act of Congress and request you to place this protest upon the public files of your office as the evidence that I have done everything in my power to preserve and maintain the judicial department in the position and rank in the Government which the Constitution assigned to it.

I am, sir, very respectfully, yours,

R. B. TANEY.

Hon. S. P. CHASE,
Secretary of the Treasury.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 215.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JUNE 26, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. MITCHELL, of Oregon, submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Secretary of the Treasury be, and he is hereby, requested to cause the proper accounting officers of the Treasury to reexamine the Treasury settlements made in eighteen hundred and eighty-four and eighteen hundred and eighty-five, and numbered fifty hundred, fifty hundred and eighty-five, fifty-two hundred and one, fifty-three hundred, fifty-three hundred and three, fifty-three hundred and sixty-three, and fifty-three hundred and sixty-eight, heretofore certified to Congress for appropriation in favor of the respective claimants for insurance paid by them on vessels, and to submit the reasons for the certification, together with a detailed statement of the facts upon which each originated, and report the same to Congress in a manner similar to the report submitted by the Secretary of the Treasury January thirty-first, eighteen hundred and ninety-four (printed in Senate Executive Document Numbered Ninety-eight, second session Fifty-third Congress), in regard to certain other Treasury settlements certified to Congress for appropriation at the same time.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 216.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JUNE 27, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations and ordered to be printed.

The VICE-PRESIDENT presented the following

COMMUNICATION FROM THE PRESIDENT OF THE COUNCIL AND THE MINISTER OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS OF FRANCE.

PARIS, *June 26, 1894.*

The President of the Council and the Minister of Foreign Affairs to the President of the Senate, Washington:

The Government of the Republic will communicate to the Senate and to the Chamber of Deputies at their next session the expressions of fraternal sympathy which it has received from the Senate and from the House of Representatives of the great American Republic, but it will not delay until that moment to communicate to you the expression of all its thanks and to make known to you the consolation which the resolutions of the Senate and of the House of Representatives have brought to it in the great grief which has stricken the country.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 217.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JUNE 28, 1894.—Ordered to be printed

Mr. SHERMAN submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on Interstate Commerce is hereby instructed to inquire into the expediency of regulating by law the employment and use of sleeping and parlor cars, not owned by railroad companies, engaged in interstate commerce, the cost of operating them, the charges made for their use, and what would be a reasonable charge for the seats, berths, and sections therein.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 218.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 2, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on the District of Columbia with S. 2172 and ordered to be printed.

Mr. GALLINGER presented the following

REPORT FROM THE COMMISSIONERS OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA AS TO WHETHER THE STREET RAILWAYS OF WASHINGTON PROPELLED BY CABLE OR ELECTRICITY HAVE ADOPTED THE MOST EFFECTIVE FENDERS FOR THE PROTECTION OF HUMAN LIFE.

OFFICE COMMISSIONERS OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA,
Washington, May 15, 1894.

DEAR SIR: The Commissioners of the District of Columbia have received from your committee the following resolution of the Senate, dated March 20, 1894:

Resolved, That the Committee on the District of Columbia be directed to investigate and report, as promptly as may be, whether in their opinion the street railways of the city of Washington propelled by cable and electric power have adopted and are using the most effective fenders for the protection of human life and limb, and if they are not so using the best available appliances what remedy should be invoked to compel them to do so?

and in pursuance of your request for their examination of and report upon the same, have the honor to inclose an extract from a report upon the subject by Capt. G. J. Fiebeger, Corps of Engineers, assistant to the Engineer Commissioner, and to add the following remarks and recommendations:

It is doubtful, in the opinion of the Commissioners, whether any of the street railways in this District have adopted and are using the most effectual fender practicable for the protection of human life and limb.

All the fenders in use are of the fixed kind and consist of shields either placed in front of the forward wheels or inclosing the wheel base. The defects in this kind of fender are, first, its rigidity, and, second, partly necessitated thereby, its height above the track level and its position well under the body of the car, instead of being close to the rail and not projecting beyond or inclosing the whole body of the car. In consequence of these defects a person may be caught under the car before the fender touches him, or may be forced under the fender when knocked down.

The height of the rigid fender seems to be unavoidable on account of the oscillations of the car when moving rapidly and of the existence above the track level of projections in the roadbed. Even on certain asphalt streets there are inch and a half projections above the pavement *of iron constructions* pertaining to the cable conduits. A first

step toward the use of a more efficient fender is the depression of these and all other similar projections to the level of the pavement.

The Commissioners for the past six months or more have given much attention to the subject of fenders and other safety appliances for street cars; have made inquiries about fenders to officials of other cities; have obtained and examined copies of all specifications of patented fenders and guards in the Patent Office, and have inspected numerous models or designs of fenders presented to them in accordance with a general notice issued by them.

No device has been found which is regarded as sufficiently meritorious and surely practicable to warrant the commissioners in requiring the street-car companies, even if authority therefor existed, to equip their cars with it.

Several of the new devices appeared promising, some of which have been commended to the attention of the companies using mechanical motive power for cars. With a view to actual trial the Commissioners in early March invited the managers of such companies to a conference on the subject, and there formally requested each company to equip one car with an improved fender of a new kind and of its own selection. The Eckington and Soldiers' Home Company announced an intention to try the Crawford fender and wheel guard. Upon the offer of the representative of the Rock Creek Railroad Company to try any fender the Commissioners might designate, a fender was named to it for that purpose. The manager of another road stated that he believed his company already had the best available fender on its cars, but would change to any fender proven to his satisfaction to be better, declining, however, to make any other change or experiment unless the District would assume all obligations in case of damages.

Subsequently the Eckington Company tried the Crawford fender and wheel guard, and have very lately informed the Commissioners that the company has adopted this fender for use on all its cars, and will soon put it on. The Rock Creek Company has given notice that it will change the fender it first intended to try by taking one of its own selection, but up to latest advices this trial has not been made.

As to what remedy should be invoked to compel the street-car companies to use the best available safety appliances the Commissioners report that the remedy is in legislation which will authorize the Commissioners to establish and enforce the following requirements:

(1) That street-car companies remove projections above the pavement belonging to their constructions and which are unnecessarily inconvenient and obstructive to the public, and

(2) To use on cars those safety appliances which the Commissioners may find satisfactory or desirable.

Very respectfully,

JOHN W. ROSS,
President Board of Commissioners, District of Columbia.

Senator ISHAM G. HARRIS,
Chairman Committee on District of Columbia, U. S. Senate.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 219.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 2, 1894.—Ordered to be printed

Mr. KYLE submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Secretary of the Navy is directed to inform the Senate by what authority and for what purpose the United States Government, through Admiral Walker, is making a survey or exploration of Pearl Harbor on the Island of Oahu, Hawaiian Islands, and the results of such survey or exploration.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 220.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 2, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. LINDSAY submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Secretary of War be, and he hereby is, directed to furnish for the use of the Senate, as early as practicable, a statement showing fully and in detail all expeditions and engagements had by the military forces of the United States with hostile bands and tribes of Indians for the period beginning with eighteen hundred and fifty and ending with March third, eighteen hundred and ninety-one, showing, whenever possible, the tribe or band engaged or operated against, and submitting with the said statement copies of all correspondence and reports relating to the said expeditions against, and engagements with, the said Indian bands or tribes.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 221.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 2, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. CALL submitted the following.

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That a committee of five Senators shall be appointed by the President, who shall inquire and report to the Senate the causes of the existing strike of railroad and Pullman car employees and the justice of the demands of the workingmen, and report by bill or otherwise such legislation as may secure justice to the workingmen and be reasonable and fair to their employers and secure the transportation of the mails and freight and passengers without interruption; and that such committee be authorized to act with a committee of the House appointed for this purpose, and may report to their respective Houses the result of their joint action.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 222.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 6, 1894.—Referred to the Committee to Audit and Control the Contingent Expenses of the Senate and ordered to be printed.

Mr. ALLEN submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That a committee of five Senators, no more than two of whom shall be members of the same political party, shall be appointed to investigate and report, by bill or otherwise, into the necessity and authority for Government ownership and control of the railway, telegraph, and telephone lines in the United States, and especially into the relation existing between such railway, telegraph, and telephone lines and their employees, and what legislation, if any, is necessary to prevent strikes by, and lockouts of, the employees thereof in the future, and to bring about a more equitable, just, and permanent system of employment and wages.

Said committee shall have power to send for persons and papers, employ a clerk and stenographer, report the testimony and evidence taken by it, and may act by subcommittee or otherwise.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 223.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 9, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. PEFFER submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

In view of existing social and business conditions, and by way of suggesting subjects for remedial legislation; be it

Resolved by the Senate of the United States, First. That all public functions ought to be exercised by and through public agencies.

Second. That all railroads employed in interstate commerce ought to be brought into one organization under control and supervision of public officers; that charges for transportation of persons and property ought to be uniform throughout the country; that wages of employees ought to be regulated by law and paid promptly in money.

Third. That all coal beds ought to be owned and worked by the States or by the Federal Government, and the wages of all persons who work in the mines ought to be provided by law and paid in money when due.

Fourth. That all money used by the people ought to be supplied only by the Government of the United States; that the rate of interest ought to be uniform in all the States, not exceeding the net average increase of the permanent wealth of the people.

Fifth. That all revenues of the Government ought to be raised by taxes on real estate.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 224.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 10, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. DANIEL submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

[Amendment proposed by Mr. Daniel to Mis. Doc. 223, as a substitute.]

Resolved, That the Senate indorses the prompt and vigorous measures adopted by the President of the United States and the members of his administration to repulse and repress, by military force, the interference of lawless men with the due process of the laws of the United States, and with the transportation of the mails of the United States, and with commerce among the States.

It is within the plain constitutional authority of the Congress of the United States "to regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;" "to establish post-offices and post-roads;" and to ordain and establish inferior courts; and the judicial power extends to all cases in law and equity arising under the Constitution and laws of the United States.

It is the duty of the President under the Constitution to "take care that the laws be faithfully executed," and to this end it is provided that he shall be "Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States when called into the actual service of the United States."

It is treason against the United States for a citizen to levy war against them, or to adhere to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort.

Those who combine to use force to assail or resist the constituted authorities of the United States, civil or military, should be warned of the magnitude of their offense, and those who earn honest bread by honest toil could do nothing more detrimental to their interests than to show them any sort of countenance in their lawless course.

The action of the President and his administration has the full sympathy and support of the law-abiding masses of the people of the United States, and he will be supported by all departments of the Government and by the power and resources of the entire nation.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 225.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 12, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. HALE submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Whereas on the third day of July, eighteen hundred and ninety-four, House bill forty-eight hundred and sixty-four, An Act to reduce taxation, provide revenue for the Government, and for other purposes, passed the Senate, with sundry amendments; and

Whereas the Senate thereupon asked for a conference with the House of Representatives upon said bill and amendments, and the following Senators were appointed as managers of such conference on the part of the Senate, to wit: Senators Voorhees, Harris, Vest, Jones, Sherman, Allison, and Aldrich; and

Whereas on the seventh day of July, eighteen hundred and ninety-four, the conference so asked for by the Senate was agreed to by the House of Representatives, and the following members of the House of Representatives were appointed as managers on the part of the conference in that body, to wit: Representatives Wilson, McMillin, Turner, Montgomery, Reed, Burrows, and Payne; and

Whereas the legitimate object of such action, on the part of the two houses, was an immediate and full and free conference of all the managers of the Senate and House of Representatives together: Therefore,

Resolved, That the chairman of the managers of said conference on the part of the Senate is hereby directed to inform the Senate whether a full and free conference is being held upon the bill aforesaid and amendments; and, if so, at what time such conference was called together.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 226.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 12, 1894.—Laid on the table and ordered to be printed.

Mr. ALLISON presented the following:

A PROTEST.

To the Senate:

Having through a long series of years witnessed the great danger and damage to the safe navigation of the Mississippi and Ohio rivers and their navigable tributaries, and the rapidly increasing flood height of those rivers caused by the present plan of bridges with piers in those rivers:

Therefore, as a navigator on those rivers of many years' experience, I feel that I have a right in the name of and for the people of that valley, which contains more than half the wealth and population of the United States, to protest against the passage of Senate Bill No. 23, which is a general bridge law, authorizing the construction of bridges with piers in those rivers, which are objectionable for several reasons:

First. The spans will be too short even for such bridges.

Second. The bridge floor will be too low, not enough space down to the high-water mark of such stream where bridges may be built.

Third. Such bridges in a few years will be so numerous as to render those rivers unnavigable, and for that reason would be the best investment railroad men could make, for their leading men say the Mississippi River is the only power that can regulate their freight rates.

Fourth. Such bridges will so obstruct the outflow of water that the entire valley lands of that great system of rivers will soon be rendered uninhabitable from excessive overflows, and the question may very pertinently be asked, why is it that Congress wants to force on the people of the whole valley of the Mississippi such bridges, when at the same time the Government will not permit a bridge to be built across the Hudson River at New York City less than 150 feet above the water, and a single span 3,000 feet long that will reach from bank to bank?

Then there is the Brooklyn bridge across East River, 125 feet high, a single span 1,500 feet long, reaching from bank to bank. Then there is a single-span bridge across Niagara River 1,200 feet long, reaching from bank to bank, and 150 feet high. Then there is the bridge across East River, recently chartered by Congress, 135 feet high, with a single span, reaching from bank to bank, 1,700 feet long. Now let me ask Congress if such bridges can be successfully built across these rivers why can they not be built across the rivers named in that bill? Why is it that Congress wants to force such a law on these rivers?

Fifth. That with such a law further appropriations for the improvement of the *navigability* of those rivers will be but a mere mockery, *even were such* appropriations now doing any good on present plans,

which is not the case, but is only a trick of the railroads and others who for selfish and various local reasons do not want those rivers improved, but to further deceive the people as is now being done through these river commissioners, as may be seen by reference to Senate Mis. Doc. No. 209, Fifty-first Congress, first session, and, also, Senate Mis. Doc. No. 38, Fifty-second Congress, second session.

Therefore, before that bill be brought up in the Senate for consideration, it is but proper and right that the navigators and others deeply interested in the navigation of those rivers have a hearing before a select committee of the Senate, to be selected by the President of the Senate, with authority to send for persons and papers and report a proper bill, and I suggest the following names of persons to be sent for as most competent to give correct information, not only as to the great damage such a law would inflict on the commercial interests of the people of that valley, but give their views as practical men of long experience as to the best plan for the deepening and otherwise improving the low-water channels of those rivers and, at the same time, stopping the overflows of their valley lands.

I am, respectfully,

JOHN COWDON.

PHŒNIX BUILDING,
Washington, D. C., July 10, 1894.

The following is the list of names:
Capt. Simpson Hana, Pittsburg, Pa.
Capt. Sam Brown, Pittsburg, Pa.
Capt. Loraly, Covington, Ky.
Capt. Paris C. Brown, Newport, Ky.
Capt. C. D. Miller, Cincinnati.
Capt. John Kerkes, Cincinnati.
Capt. Frank Curtis, Louisville, Ky.
Capt. Will S. Hays, Louisville, Ky.
Capt. J. W. Connor, New Albany, Ind.
Capt. J. E. Montgery, Chicago, Ill.
John Prenelville, Chicago, Ill.
The President or Superintendent Diamond Jo Line Steamers at St. Paul.
To the President of the Illinois River Packet Company, St. Louis, Mo.
Mr. S. O. Hemenway, St. Louis.
The President Missouri River Packet Company, St. Louis, Mo.
Capt. James Lee, Memphis, Tenn.
Capt. M. T. Fullerson, Memphis, Tenn.
Capt. N. M. Jones, Memphis, Tenn.
Capt. W. G. Coyle, New Orleans.
Capt. Thomas P. Leathers, New Orleans, La.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 227.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 13, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. PETTIGREW submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on Indian Affairs be instructed, either by full committee or such subcommittee or committees as may be appointed by the chairman thereof in accordance with the resolution of April fourteenth, eighteen hundred and ninety-three, and by virtue of said resolution, to thoroughly investigate the arrest and removal of the Lower Brule Indians from their homes south of White River to their new reservation near Little Bend, and pending such investigation the Secretary of the Interior and the Commissioner of Indian Affairs are hereby directed not to remove any of the Lower Brule Indians from their homes south of White River to their new reservation, and to allow those already removed to return south of White River if they desire to do so.

O

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 13, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

JULY 18, 1894.—Considered, amended, and referred to Committee to Audit and Control the Contingent Expenses of the Senate.

JULY 27, 1894.—Reported by Mr. CAMDEN without amendment.

Mr. PETTIGREW presented the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on Indian Affairs be instructed, either by full committee or such subcommittee or committees as may be appointed by the chairman thereof, with the full power of such committee to continue during the recess of Congress the investigations authorized by the resolutions of May thirteenth, eighteen hundred and ninety, and February twenty-seventh, eighteen hundred and ninety-one, with the authority and in the manner and to the extent provided in said resolutions, and in the pursuance of such investigations to visit the several Indian reservations, Indian schools supported in whole or in part by the Government, and the five nations in the Indian Territory, or any reservation where, in the opinion of said committee, it may be necessary to extend their investigations.

Second. That said committee or subcommittee shall have power to send for persons and papers, to administer oaths, and to examine witnesses under oath touching the matters which they are hereby empowered to investigate, and may hold their sessions during the recess of the Senate at such place or places as they may determine; and the necessary and proper expense incurred in the execution of this order shall be paid out of the contingent fund of the Senate upon vouchers approved by the chairman of said committee.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 228.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 14, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. JONES, of Arkansas, submitted the following

RESOLUTION

As an amendment to the resolution offered by Mr. PETTIGREW, viz: Strike out all after "*Resolved*," and insert:

That the Committee on Indian Affairs be instructed, either by full committee or such subcommittee or committees as may be appointed by the chairman thereof, with the full power of such committee to continue during the recess of Congress the investigations authorized by the resolutions of May thirteenth, eighteen hundred and ninety, and February twenty-seventh, eighteen hundred and ninety-one, with the authority and in the manner and to the extent provided in said resolutions, and in the pursuance of such investigations, to visit the several Indian reservations, Indian schools supported in whole or in part by the Government, and the five nations in the Indian Territory, or any reservation where, in the opinion of said committee, it may be necessary to extend their investigations.

Second. That said committee or subcommittee shall have power to send for persons and papers, to administer oaths, and to examine witnesses under oath touching the matters which they are hereby empowered to investigate, and may hold their sessions during the recess of the Senate at such place or places as they may determine; and the necessary and proper expense incurred in the execution of this order shall be paid out of the contingent fund of the Senate upon vouchers approved by the chairman of said committee.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 229.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES

JULY 17, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on the Judiciary and ordered to be printed.

Mr. GEORGE submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on the Judiciary be instructed to inquire:

First. Whether that provision of the naturalization laws requiring that an applicant for naturalization should be "a man of good moral character, attached to the principles of the Constitution of the United States and well disposed to the good order and happiness of the same," is a condition of admission to the same; and whether, after naturalization has been granted, the same may be recalled if it shall turn out that said naturalized person has so acted as to show that he is not a man of good moral character, or that he is not attached to the principles of the Constitution of the United States, or is not well disposed to the good order and happiness of the same.

Second. That if it shall be ascertained that no such recall of the grant of naturalization can be made, as is mentioned in the first resolution, then they shall inquire into the expediency of so amending the law as to provide for such recall as to persons hereafter naturalized.

Third. What new provisions, if any, are necessary to secure a compliance with the law in relation to proof of good character and attachment to the principles of the Constitution of the United States in applicants for naturalization.

Fourth. Whether it is expedient to require by law that ability to read the Constitution of the United States shall be a necessary qualification for naturalization hereafter.

Fifth. Whether it is expedient to require notice to be given of every application for naturalization to the end that an officer representing the United States may appear and make due contest of the right of any applicant to be naturalized.

Resolved, That said committee, after making said inquiry, shall report by bill if they deem any amendment to the naturalization laws to be expedient.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 230.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 17, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Appropriations, with amendment to H. R. 5575, and ordered to be printed.

Mr. WHITE presented the following:

LIGHT AND FOG SIGNAL FOR NEW YORK SLOUGH, ENTRANCE TO SAN JOAQUIN RIVER, CALIFORNIA.

Annual report of Light-House Board for 1889 recommends establishment thereof.

Annual report same board for 1890 also recommends its establishment.

The report of same board for 1891, at page 158 thereof, has this to say:

New York Slough, entrance to San Joaquin River, California. *The following recommendation* made in the board's last two annual reports (1889 and 1890) is *renewed:*

"This slough consists of a short deep passage from Suisun Bay, entrance to the San Joaquin River, and *necessarily* has to be used by all steamers, sailing vessels, barges, etc., *engaged* in the great *river traffic.* The steamers of the California Steam Navigation Company, with three other prominent lines, besides other steamers and sailing craft, all use the slough passage. As there are no lights, *there are unavoidable accidents at night, and there have been frequent accidents in fog. The board has placed post lights in the slough as a temporary expedient, but these have proved inefficient.* It is therefore *recommended* that the proper steps be taken for placing a *light* and a fog signal here, and the cost is estimated at $10,000."

The annual report of this board for 1892 renews this recommendation made in report of 1891.

[Extracts from annual reports Light-House Board, 1893, p. 165.]

NEW YORK SLOUGH, ENTRANCE TO SAN JOAQUIN RIVER, CALIFORNIA.

The establishment of a light and fog signal here, at a cost not exceeding $10,000, was authorized by the act approved February 15, 1893, but no appropriation therefor has yet been made.

The Board recommends that the amount named be appropriated.

[Extract Book of Estimates, 1894–'95.]

NEW YORK SLOUGH LIGHT AND FOG SIGNAL STATION, CALIFORNIA

Establishing a light and fog signal station at New York Slough, entrance to the San Joaquin River from Suisun Bay. (Authorized February 15, 1893. *See* vol. 27, U. S. Stat., p. 455, sec. 1.)

This slough constitutes a short and deep passage from Suisun Bay into the San Joaquin River, and is used by the *steamers, sailing craft, barges, etc., engaged in the great river traffic of California. Accidents have been frequent and unavoidable at night and in fog.* The Board has placed port lights here as a *temporary expedient, but they are insufficient.*

O

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 13, 1894.—Mr. Brice, from the Committee on Pacific Railroads, reported the following resolution, which was referred to the Committee to Audit and Control the Contingent Expenses of the Senate.

JULY 19, 1894.—Reported by Mr. Jones, of Nevada, without amendment and ordered to be printed.

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on Pacific Railroads be, and they are hereby, authorized and directed, during any recess of Congress preceding the regular meeting thereof in December next, to make a personal examination of the roads and other properties of the bond-aided Pacific railway companies and their branches, and the country through which they pass or which is immediately contributory to their income, with a view to ascertaining their present status and their ability to pay their indebtedness to the United States, and how that indebtedness can be adjusted and paid. In pursuing their investigation said committee are hereby further authorized, by subcommittee or otherwise, to sit during the recess or sessions of the Senate, at such times and places as they may deem advisable; and they shall have power to send for persons and papers, to administer the necessary oaths, and to employ a stenographer and such clerical and expert assistance as they may deem necessary. Said committee shall have authority to cause its proceedings and testimony taken to be printed from time to time as they may see fit; and such expense as may result from said investigation shall be paid out of the contingent fund of the Senate, upon vouchers to be approved by the chairman of said committee and by the Committee to Audit and Control the Contingent Expenses of the Senate. Any subcommittee appointed by the committee shall have all the powers of the full committee.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 232.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 19, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. HILL submitted the following

ESTIMATE OF THE PROBABLE OR POSSIBLE REVENUE UNDER THE PROPOSED INCOME TAX, BY WORTHINGTON C. FORD, CHIEF OF THE BUREAU OF STATISTICS, TREASURY DEPARTMENT.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
BUREAU OF STATISTICS,
Washington, D. C., April 3, 1894.

SIR: You ask me for an estimate of the probable revenue under the income tax, as provided for in the Senate measure. I shall take the liberty of changing the question, so as to make it cover rather the *possible* revenue than the *probable* revenue. My investigations lead me to conclude that the "possible" revenue under that income tax would range from $12,000,000 at the lowest point to $39,000,000 at the highest. I also conclude that in the first year of its operation the lowest rather than the highest possibility will be attained. In other words, I should fix the revenue for the first full year somewhere below $15,000,000.

An estimate of this nature is worthless unless supported by some evidence. I would, therefore, ask your attention to the results of experience in the United States and in foreign states, upon which I base my conclusions.

The provisions of the proposed law have been framed upon the internal-revenue act of 1867, with two important exceptions. The limit of exemption from taxation is raised from incomes of $1,000 to incomes of $4,000; and the rate of tax is reduced from 5 per cent to 2 per cent. The great mass of any people receive comparatively small incomes, and the number of those enjoying large incomes grows rapidly less with every increase in the limit of income in any grade or classification. Experience has proved that there is no correlation between the number of taxpayers in any class or limit of income and the number of taxpayers in any other class. Raising the limit of exemption from $500 to $1,000 will not strike off a certain number of payers; nor is it possible to predict what proportion of payers will be affected by raising the limit of exemption to $2,000 or to $4,000. This was the experience of the United States under the income-tax law of 1865. Incomes under $600 were exempted from taxation. The whole number of persons assessed on the annual list in 1866 was 460,170.

In 1867, after the limit of exemption had been raised to $1,000, the

number of persons assessed was returned at 240,134; the amount of revenue collected was $57,040,640. In 1868, when the law of 1867 had become fully operative, the number of persons assessed was returned at 254,617, and the revenue was $32,027,610. As compared with the returns of 1866 the returns of 1868 showed a decrease of 44.6 per cent in the number of persons assessed and 47 per cent in the revenue. The number of persons assessed in 1868 (254,617) was thus distributed:

	1868.	Income.
Tax $20	109,558	$1,000 to $1,400
Tax from $20 to $50	55,949	1,400 to 2,000
Tax from $50 to $100	38,957	2,000 to 3,000
Tax from $100 to $200	51,188	3,000 to 5,000
Tax over $200	7,965	Over 5,000
Total	254,617	

Thus in 1868 less than 50,000 persons would be assessed on an income in excess of $4,000.

Another calculation, based upon the experience of the United States, will tend to show the limited range of an income tax on incomes above $4,000 a year. In 1870 the limit of exemption was raised to $2,000. The number of persons assessed for income fell in 1871 to 74,775 and in 1872 to 72,949. Doubling the limit of exemption reduced the number of payers by more than two-thirds. If in 1872 the limit of exemption had been raised to $4,000, it is reasonable to believe the number of payers might again have been reduced by two-thirds (probably a too moderate estimate of the result of such a change); in other words, barely 24,000 persons would have been assessed for an income duty.

The population of the United States in 1870 was 38,558,371, and about twenty-four thousandths of 1 per cent paid taxes on incomes of $4,000 and over. In 1870 the product of the income tax was $27,115,046. The assessed valuation of real and personal property in that year was $14,178,986,732. The product of the income tax represented, therefore, nineteen-hundredths of 1 per cent on the assessed valuation of property. If we suppose that rate of tax and limit of exemption ($1,000) to remain unchanged, on the valuation of 1880 there would be collected $45,851,712. But the experience just described would show that only one-fifth of the taxpayers would pay on incomes under a $4,000 exemption, giving about $10,000,000 on a liberal estimate.

EXPERIENCE OF FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

As further evidence of the wide meshes provided by an exemption of $4,000, I may cite the present situation of the income tax in the United Kingdom and Germany.

UNITED KINGDOM.

As regards the returns of the income tax in the United Kingdom the latest official and detailed information I have is the return for the fiscal year ending March 31, 1891. This, in itself, is very suggestive when compared with the similar return of 1890, because it shows in what lines the gross assessments have varied. In order that the figures quoted may be better understood, I give an outline of the schedules of charge under the "property and income tax."

Schedule A touches income from landed property, including houses; and the rent or annual value is the measure of charge.

Schedule B touches the profits derived from the use of land by the agriculturist—the farmer where the land is let; the occupier, where the land is in hand. The rent or annual value forms the basis of assessment under this schedule, but the measure of charge is only one-half that rent or annual value in England, and one-third in Scotland and Ireland. Further, the assessment is based upon a preliminary estimate of profits, and may be altered by the commissioners according to the actual results.

Schedule C touches income from any public securities—Imperial, colonial, or foreign.

I take Schedule E next in order. This touches persons in the employment of the state, or in other public employments of profit, that is, in public corporations or companies.

Schedule D touches incomes from professions, trades, and other occupations in life, and any income not included in the other branches of the tax. It is subdivided into six parts, technically termed "cases," as follows:

Case I.—To profits from trade, manufactures, and commerce.

Case II.—To professional incomes and occupations, not within any other schedule in the act. In Cases I and II the average profits of the last three years is taken as the basis of assessment.

Case III.—To profits of an uncertain annual value.

Cases IV and V.—To income from abroad.

Case VI.—To any profits and gains not within any other charge in the act. Assessments under Cases III, IV, V, and VI are based upon the profits of the year. Incomes of less than £150 ($750) are exempt from all taxation.

Assessments and collections under Schedules A and B are in the regulations of general commissioners, chosen from the land tax commissioners. Schedule C is in charge of special commissioners and Schedule D under additional commissioners chosen for the purpose by the general commissioners, partly from their own body and partly from without, as supplementary to their own body.

Schedule D represents the elastic element in this tax.

The gross assessments under each schedule in the two years 1890 and 1891 were as follows (in pounds sterling):

	1890-'91.	1889-'90.	Increase.	Decrease.
Schedule A	199,299,608	197,652,410	1,647,198	.....
B	58,120,843	58,388,746	.....	267,903
C (net)	41,689,246	43,002,070	.....	1,312,824
D	351,590,691	325,316,366	26,274,325	.....
E	47,707,161	44,999,021	2,708,140	.....
	698,407,549	669,358,613	30,629,663	1,580,727
Net increase	.....	.....	29,048,936	

The tax is not, however, assessed upon the gross amount, and the exemptions allowed form quite a considerable sum. Thus, the gross assessments for 1891 aggregated 698,407,549 pounds sterling. The net amount of property and profits charged to the duty of income tax in the year 1891 was 587,251,084 pounds sterling. In order to show on

what schedules the largest difference between gross and net occurs. print the respective returns for 1891 (in pounds sterling):

	Gross.	Net.	Difference.	Perc
Schedule A	199, 299, 608	177, 725, 959	21, 973, 649	[illegible]
B	58, 120, 843	24, 831, 874	33, 288, 969	[illegible]
C (net)	41, 689, 246	41, 689, 246	.....	.....
D	351, 599, 691	306, 538, 198	45, 052, 493	[illegible]
E	47, 707, 161	36, 465, 805	11, 241, 354	[illegible]
Total	698, 407, 549	587, 251, 084	111, 156, 465	[illegible]

The decrease under Schedule B represents the agricultural depression. Indeed, under Schedule A, whatever increase the gross assessment has shown has been entirely in houses, as the value of lands returned show a decrease.

While the English returns of the income and property tax offer many points of interest, it is Schedule D that is of special value in studying the possible effect of the Senate measure.

The gross assessment under Schedule D in two years, 1887 and 1891, were (in pounds sterling):

	1890–'91	1886–'[illegible]
Trades and professions	189, 576, 000	[illegible]
Quarries	933, 000	[illegible]
Mines	8, 808, 000	[illegible]
Iron works	3, 105, 000	[illegible]
Gas works	5, 120, 000	[illegible]
Waterworks, etc	3, 961, 000	[illegible]
Canals, etc	2, 490, 000	[illegible]
Fishings and shootings	699, 000	[illegible]
Market tolls, etc	637, 000	[illegible]
Other public companies and concerns	60, 439, 000	[illegible]
Foreign and colonial securities	15, 313, 000	[illegible]
Railways in the United Kingdom	26, 445, 000	[illegible]
Railways out of United Kingdom	7, 368, 000	[illegible]
Interest paid out of rates	5, 695, 000	[illegible]
Other profits	1, 825, 000	[illegible]
Coupons	8, 170, 000	[illegible]
Lands	7, 000	.....
Total	351, 591, 000	[illegible]

Unfortunately the English returns do not give regularly the number of taxpayers under each class. In a parliamentary paper, printed in 1877, I find the following for Schedules D and E:

SCHEDULE D.—INCOME TAX.

Commercial and professional incomes.

Classes of income.	Number of payers.	Revenue from each class.	Classes of income.	Number of payers.	Revenue from each class.
$750	56, 671	$9, 824, 266	$10, 000 to $15, 000	3, 861	$42, 572, [illegible]
750 to 1, 000	126, 692	31, 131, 501	15, 000 to 20, 000	1, 774	[illegible]
1, 000 to 1, 500	89, 030	60, 490, 166	20, 000 to 25, 000	1, 008	[illegible]
1, 500 to 2, 000	39, 909	52, 781, 688	25, 000 to 50, 000	1, 896	[illegible]
2, 000 to 2, 500	17, 179	33, 012, 605	50, 000 to 250, 000	1, 036	[illegible]
2, 500 to 3, 000	12, 818	31, 443, 818	Above $250, 000	86	[illegible]
3, 000 to 5, 000	17, 738	61, 079, 358			
5, 000 to 10, 000	12, 274	75, 259, 536	Total	381, 972	416, 973, [illegible]

This shows 89.6 per cent of the taxpayers in this schedule paid [illegible] 34.4 per cent of the total taxable income.

SCHEDULE E.—INCOME TAX.

All public offices and pensions, paid out of the public revenue and salaries, etc., of employés of corporate bodies, etc.:

Classes of income.	Number of persons.	Taxable incomes.	Classes of income.	Number of persons.	Taxable incomes.
Below $750	66,889	£2,875,348	$5,000 to $10,000	2,284	£2,815,412
$750 to $1,000	24,752	1,991,936	10,000 to 15,000	356	776,024
1,000 to 1,500	22,811	3,551,203	15,000 to 20,000	120	385,623
1,500 to 2,000	10,596	2,922,531	20,000 to 25,000	39	179,603
2,000 to 2,500	5,541	2,305,251	Above $25,000	84	549,237
2,500 to 3,000	4,063	1,565,176			
3,000 to 5,000	4,317	3,070,665	Total	141,852	22,987,949

I regard the English experience as particularly pertinent, as the conditions of commerce and industry approach nearer to those that prevail in this country. Upon the whole the conditions in that country are much more favorable to the collection of such a tax. Not only have the people become accustomed to the assessment and collection of an income tax, but commercial, financial, and industrial undertakings are conducted upon a great scale; operations are centralized, and land as well as capital is exploited by large holdings. These conditions made the assessment of the tax a comparatively simple matter, and at the same time insures a larger proportionate revenue from an income tax than could be collected on profits where operations are conducted upon a smaller scale, in a large expanse of territory, much of which is sparsely settled, and among a people unaccustomed to a tax upon incomes.

GERMANY.

The incidence of the tax upon incomes in Germany is also not without interest in this connection. I shall merely quote the figures, without comment.

Class of incomes.	Number of payers.	Amount of revenue.	Class of incomes.	Number of payers.	Amount of revenue.
		Marks.			*Marks.*
900 to 3,000 marks	2,118,969	32,835,099	72,000 to 84,000 marks	645	1,831,220
3,000 to 4,200 marks	126,798	9,126,124	84,000 to 96,000 marks	406	1,602,300
4,200 to 6,000 marks	77,916	9,624,826	96,000 to 120,000 marks	562	2,348,000
6,000 to 8,500 marks	45,140	8,505,908	120,000 to 205,000 marks	715	4,301,000
8,500 to 10,500 marks	17,972	5,012,528	205,000 to 300,000 marks	266	2,579,800
10,500 to 14,500 marks	17,685	6,518,340	300,000 to 600,000 marks	164	2,688,200
14,500 to 21,500 marks	13,394	7,019,040	600,000 to 900,000 marks	38	1,060,200
21,500 to 28,500 marks	5,966	4,414,410	900,000 to 1,500,000 marks	23	1,047,200
28,500 to 36,000 marks	3,573	3,512,030	1,500,000 to 3,000,000 marks	8	568,600
36,000 to 48,000 marks	2,934	4,030,720	3,000,000 to 4,020,000 marks	1	133,400
48,000 to 60,000 marks	1,647	3,071,360	4,020,000 to 4,980,000 marks	1	172,400
60,000 to 72,000 marks	973	2,278,000	4,980,000 to 7,000,000 marks	2	504,400

Numerical proportion represented by each group.

	Per cent.
900 to 3,000 marks	86.99
3,000 to 6,000 marks	8.40
6,000 to 9,500 marks	2.28
9,500 to 30,500 marks	1.89
30,500 to 100,000 marks	.57
Above 100,000	.07
Total	100.00

Share of revenue contributed by each group.

	Per cent.
900 to 3,000 marks	28.60
3,000 to 6,000 marks	16.32
6,000 to 9,000 marks	9.78
9,500 to 30,500 marks	18.68
30,500 to 100,000 marks	13.62
Above 100,000	13.00
Total	100.00

In further evidence that the great bulk of private incomes would be exempted under the high limit fixed by the Senate measure, that is, incomes under $4,000 a year, I may cite the figures of the net capital value of estates assessed to probate duty in the United Kingdom:

	Number.	Per cent.
Not exceeding 1,000 pounds sterling	39,979	69.0
Of 1,000 and under 4,000	10,886	18.8
Of 4,000 and under 10,000	3,846	6.7
Of 10,000 and under 50,000	2,657	4.6
Of 50,000 and under 100,000	347	.6
Of 100,000 and under 500,000	193	.3
Of 500,000 and under 1,000,000	17	.0
Of 1,000,000 and upwards	3	.0
	57,928	100.0

To produce an income of $4,000 a year requires a capital of $80,000 returning 5 per cent. Ten thousand pounds sterling represent $50,000 only, so that under the Senate bill 94.5 per cent of these English estates would be exempted, and a certain number of estates in the class of from £10,000 to £50,000. At least 95 per cent of estates passing through the probate office would escape any payment under an income tax such as is proposed by the Senate measure.

I could cite similar returns from Saxony, from Switzerland, from Italy, and from France, but the evidence would be merely cumulative on the point I make, that with an exemption of incomes under $4,000 a year, and with the other liberal exemptions granted under the Senate bill, the number of payers would be very small and the revenue out of all proportion to the cost and difficulties of collection. Wherever an income tax has been in practice for any time the small incomes as well as the large are taxed; and it is the small incomes which yield the largest revenue to the state.

The experiences of the war income tax were in one sense favorable. All incomes larger than $500 a year were taxed until 1865, when the limit was raised to $1,000. The maximum amount collected in any one year was $72,982,159, in 1866. It thus required four years to get the system into operation. After the exemption of incomes below $1,000 the receipts rapidly fell off until the tax expired by limitation, in 1872. With the limit of $1,000 it is safe to say that $50,000,000 were never collected in any one year, as the returns for 1867 must have been affected by suspended payments on previous years. Yet, at the time of this war tax the Government was aided by patriotism awakened by that event and by a revival of business. It was favored by a system of taxation as searching and as universal as could be devised by the ingenuity of the legislator, which was administered by a body of officers gradually trained to a performance of their duties, very much larger than could be put into the field at the present time. Further, they had a knowledge, more or less intimate, of the conditions of

their respective districts and a certain familiarity with the possible large taxpayers. This training is now absent. There is no way of building up the information save after years of experience. No State, no locality, assesses and collects any tax approaching in nature to an income tax. In a few States a tax upon corporations is in being, and where such taxes are paid and returns made to the State comptroller a basis is afforded for a rough estimate of what is the taxing field in that particular line of property. I will make an attempt in this direction.

Assuming that the provisions of the bill providing for a tax upon dividends declared by different classes of corporations will be the most profitable source of income to the Government, I examined the returns made in the State of New York under the corporation tax law, a law which has now had an experience of fourteen years. We may suppose that the conditions in that State are exceptionally favorable to a law of this description. Its great mercantile and manufacturing interests, and its liberal law providing for forming corporations and corporate bodies, hold out a promise for as large a revenue from taxes on corporations as could be expected in any State of the Union from a similar law.

In the year 1893 the income derived from this tax on corporations was $1,967,153. This aggregate was obtained by a tax upon capital, determined by the rate of dividend. Where the dividend amounts to 6 or more than 6 per cent upon the par value of the capital stock of the corporation the tax is one-quarter mill upon the capital stock for each 1 per cent of dividend so made. Where there is no dividend declared, or where the dividend falls below 6 per cent, the tax is at the rate of 1½ mills upon each dollar of the valuation of the capital stock. Insurance companies pay eight-tenths of 1 per cent upon the gross amount of premiums received. Railroads, steamboat, express, and other transportation companies, and telegraph and telephone companies, are charged at the rate of five-tenths of 1 per cent upon the gross earnings in the State. It is difficult to bring these rates into comparison with the 2 per cent on dividends and profits provided for in the Senate measure. The relation of net earnings to gross earnings varies so widely in different occupations as to make any general rule inapplicable. I think, however, it will be safe to assert that the Federal Government will not be able to collect any larger tax on corporations in New York than is now obtained under the State law.

The rate of 2 per cent on dividends may average higher than the State tax would if applied to net earnings. But whatever excess of revenue such increased rate of tax might bring in would, I think, be more than compensated by the difference in levying a tax upon gross and a tax upon net premiums, dividends, or profits. I am led to this belief by an additional consideration—the detailed sources from which New York State obtained this revenue from corporations in 1893. More than 40 per cent (44.1 per cent) of the revenue was derived from sources which, to my belief, would not fall under the cognizance of the Federal tax law. As I understand it, the intention of the Senate measure is to reach only profits, leaving untouched capital and such duties as might be described as license duties, taxes imposed for the privilege of obtaining incorporation, or for doing business in the State. I separate the New York tax receipts into the two classes, the one annual and applying to the same objects as the proposed Federal tax measure; the other, occasional, or partaking of the nature of license or duties on capital.

Insurance companies, on premiums	$119,851.07
Transportation companies, on earnings	420,403.54
Telephone and telegraph companies, on earnings	28,054.76
Gas, electric, and miscellaneous corporations	468,430.92
Foreign banks	62,864.17
Total	1,099,604.48
Insurance companies, on capital	11,695.62
Transportation companies, on capital	524,667.75
Telephone and telegraph companies, on capital	32,943.77
Organization of corporations	298,241.37
Total	867,548.51

Taking into consideration that this second class will hardly be touched by the Federal-tax law, I think it ample margin for any unexpected sources of income touched by a tax upon profits and dividends. If these promises be granted, I think to multiply the product of the corporation tax in New York State by six would give the probable income for the whole country. I do not believe there are 6 States in the Union which will return as much as New York. This would give us twelve millions of revenue, and in this manner I determined the lowest possibility.

The difficulty of determining the question of revenue from any particular source, as well as the presumption that the revenue from any particular source will be small, is illustrated by the experience of New York City in the amounts received from surface-car companies, gauged by percentages on the gross receipts.

The returns for 1892 ($152,846) were obtained on the following basis:

Amounts paid.	Rate.	Estimated assessed value.
$2,458	5 per cent on gross receipts	$49,160
7,658	3 per cent on gross receipts	255,100
7,234	5 per cent on net receipts	144,680
4,900	3 per cent on gross receipts	163,333
52,044	5 per cent on gross receipts	104,088
24,795	.....do	495,500
31,164	.....do	623,280
6,721	.....do	134,420
6,034	.....do	120,680
9,843	6 per cent on gross receipts	164,040
152,846		2,254,281

This return would show that the gross receipts of the leading surface roads in New York, in 1892, were $2,254,281, a result that is absurd. From the State report on street railways in Massachusetts, the returns of 60 companies in 1893 gave gross receipts of $10,894,704. On this amount was declared a cash dividend of $1,716,637. A tax of 2 per cent on the dividends would give the Federal Government $34,332.74. There is only one city in the Union having a larger mileage of street railways than Boston. The aggregate of 56 principal cities reporting to the census gave a mileage in 1889 of 3,151 miles. Of this Boston represented about one-sixteenth. If we assume, and this assumption is supported by the report of the State board of railroad commissioners, which states that "five-eighths of all the passengers on the street railways of the State were carried by the West End Company, and considerably more than one-half of all the car miles and round trips run, were run on its lines"—if we assume that *five-eighths* of the $34,333, or $21,458, would be paid by the Boston companies, and that this rep-

resented a possible one-sixteenth of the total revenue under the Federal income tax, an aggregate of $343,330 is obtained. This sum would represent, in short, the income to be derived from one of the most profitable and extensive sources of revenue that could be found.

If to this sum is added the revenue to be obtained from steam railroad companies, a very interesting estimate is reached. In 1866 the amount received from railroad companies through the 5 per cent duties on dividends, interest on bonds, and additions to surplus levied under the national income-tax law was $2,205,804. Such a return would represent dividends to the aggregate of $44,116,080. In 1892 the dividends paid by railroads amounted to $81,536,811. At 2 per cent this would give a revenue of $1,630,736, or only 74 per cent of the revenue obtained in 1866. Adding the estimated revenue to be derived from street railroads a total of $1,974,066 is given, or a sum only one-third what a tax of 2 per cent on the assessed value would return on the assessed value of railroads in the United Kingdom under the English income tax ($5,882,527). Yet the net receipts from the railroads of the United Kingdom in 1892 were £36,374,075 ($177,014,435), as compared with net earnings on the American railroads of $352,817,405.

In 1892 the gross amount assessed to the income tax on account of railways in the United Kingdom was 44,190,656 pounds sterling. From this sum should be deducted 8,013,838 pounds sterling, which represented assessments on profits from railways out of the United Kingdom. This leaves a balance of 36,176,818 pounds sterling, which may be taken to represent what part of the property and profits apply to the railways of the United Kingdom. The total value of property and profits assessed for the income and property tax in 1892 was 710,752,684 pounds sterling. Railroads thus represented exactly 5 per cent of the total assessed for the income tax.

If we assume, and here again the assumption is fairly justified, that the relative proportion of railway property and profits in the United States to the total property and profits from all sources is the same as in the United Kingdom, we may multiply the estimated returns under the income tax from railroads in the United States (as determined above) by 20, and this will give about $39,000,000. This I take to be the highest possible return from the income tax of the Senate bill when assessed and collected under the most favorable conditions. That it would reach this point in the first years of its activity I do not conceive possible.

I am thus brought to the point from which I started, that the revenue from private incomes will be small, and will hardly cover the cost of collection; and that the revenue from corporations may reach as high as $39,000,000, but is more likely to be nearer $12,000,000.

Respectfully, yours,

WORTHINGTON C. FORD,
Chief of Bureau.

Hon. DAVID B. HILL,
U. S. Senate.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 233.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 19, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Appropriations and ordered to be priuted.

Mr. MARTIN presented the following

COMMUNICATION FROM THE ACTING COMMISSIONER OF INDIAN AFFAIRS, RELATIVE TO THE CLAIMS OF CERTAIN WYANDOTTE INDIANS.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
OFFICE OF INDIAN AFFAIRS,
Washington, February 17, 1894.

SIR: I have the honor to state that I am in receipt of a communication from Hon. William S. Holman, chairman of the Committee on Indian Affairs, House of Representatives, dated February 9, 1894, in which he incloses copy of a letter from this office to R. B. Armstrong, esq., dated January 8, 1891, relative to the claims of certain Wyandotte Indians and a proposed amendment to the Indian appropriation bill, and asks for my views in relation to the claim.

With the papers submitted by Mr. Holman is the draft of what appears to be an item intended for insertion in the Indian appropriation bill, as follows:

Whereas there is due the Wyandotte Indians by the Government of the United States, as ascertained by a report of special commissioners appointed by Congress to investigate the claims of the Wyandottes, transmitted to Congress March 19, 1869, the sum of $24,811.50; and whereas there are absentee Wyandotte Indians, who are poor and homeless, numbering between 150 and 200;

Therefore the Secretary of the Interior is hereby authorized and directed to purchase for said absentee Wyandotte Indians 80 acres of land per capita, such purchase to be made of the Indians comprising the Quapaw Agency in the Indian Territory, or, if found impracticable, of other Indians in the Indian Territory, said lands to be taken in allotments, as provided in the severalty act of February, 1887, and amendments thereto, and to be paid for at the maximum price of $1.50 per acre; and the sum of $25,000 is hereby appropriated out of the general fund not otherwise appropriated for the purpose of carrying out this provision.

The thirteenth article of the treaty of February 23, 1867, known as the Omnibus Treaty (15 Stats., 516), as originally agreed upon, provided "that there shall be recognized as due and paid to the Wyandottes of all classes the sum of eighty-three thousand eight hundred and fourteen dollars and forty cents," as shown by a schedule attached to the treaty.

The items in said schedule were as follows:

1. Annuity due under the sixth article of the treaty of January 31, 1855..	$8,750.00
2. Amount discounted on $53,594.53 in State bonds on May 13, 1859	15,187.03
3. Interest on the above $15,187.03 from May 13, 1859, to February, 1867, at 5 per cent.....	6,150.87
4. Amount discounted on $53,000 in State bonds, March 24, 1860.....	11,130.00

5. Interest on above $11,130 from March 24, 1860, to February 24, 1867...	$4,618.95
6. Moneys heretofore appropriated in fulfillment of treaty stipulations, but transferred to surplus fund	3,635.05
7. Amount for depredations on Wyandotte property, claim approved by Secretary of the Interior March 21, 1862	34,342.50
Total amount	83,814.40

The schedule also contained the following statement:

The above-named total sum is designed to represent the full claim of the Wyandottes against the United States under former treaties.

The first, second, and fourth items, together with another named in the fourteenth article of the foregoing treaty, were examined and approved by the House Committee on Indian Affairs, and their payment recommended. (*See* Congressional Globe, p. 1037, part 2, second session Thirty-eighth Congress.)

The third and fifth items constitute the interest on the moneys discounted on the bonds mentioned in the items 2 and 4. Although the committee did not recommend the payment of this interest they acknowledged its justice, but said that its allowance would possibly endanger the passage of the appropriation, as the general feeling was averse to paying interest on claims.

In ratifying the treaty the Senate struck out the above provision of the thirteenth article and inserted the following in lieu thereof:

And the Secretary of the Interior is hereby authorized and required to appoint three persons whose duty it shall be to ascertain and report to the Department the amount of money, if any, due by the United States to the Wyandotte Indians under existing treaty stipulations, and the items mentioned in Schedule A, appended to this treaty, and the report of the persons so appointed, with the evidence taken, shall be submitted to Congress for action at its next session.

This amendment was accepted by the Wyandottes, and Messrs. James H. Embry, Julius A. Fay, and James P. Taylor were appointed commissioners thereunder March 2, 1869. These commissioners submitted their report, in which they found the following sums justly due the Wyandottes from the United States, to wit:

A. Interest on deferred payments	$11,612.00
B. Loss on sale of bonds, May, 1859, with interest	18,547.00
Loss on sale of bonds, March, 1860, with interest	12,620.00
C. Money heretofore appropriated in fulfillment of treaty stipulations, but transferred to the surplus fund	3,844.69
D. Taxes unjustly collected by the Territorial government of Kansas, in 1859 and 1860, to be refunded with interest	14,582.62
E. Grant of $5,000 for Wyandottes to establish themselves in their new homes	5,000.00
Total	66,206.31

This report was transmitted to the Senate by the Secretary of the Interior March 17, 1869 (Senate Ex. Doc. No. 6, Forty-first Congress, first session).

In a supplemental report the commissioners allowed for claims of various parties for losses by depredations committed on their property, $6,293.50, making the total amount allowed by the Commission, $72,499.81.

It will be observed that there are three items of interest included in the above amounts:

First. A, composed entirely of interest on deferred payments	$11,612.00
Second. In B, interest on loss on bonds, which is found to amount to...	11,444.50
Third. In D, interest on taxes illegally collected, found to amount to ...	2,879.06
Total	25,935.56
It also appears from the records of this office that item C included the sum of $1,755.18 for interest	1,755.18
	27,690.74

The draft submitted with Mr. Holman's letter appears to be composed of these several items with the exception of No. 3, the correct amount of the other items being $24,811.68.

By the act of May 29, 1872 (17 Stats., 165), the sum of $16,703.50 was appropriated to refund the taxes unjustly collected, being item D of the Commission's report, less interest, $11,703.56, and for the payment of the $5,000 for removal, being item E.

By the act of March 3, 1881 (21 Stats., 421), the sum of $28,109.51 was appropriated to be paid to members of the Wyandotte tribe of Indians, which appears to include the following items:

Losses on sale of bonds, May, 1859	$11,592.50
Losses on sale of bonds, March, 1860 (being item B with interest omitted)	8,130.00
Money theretofore appropriated but transferred to surplus fund (being item C without interest)	2,089.51
And depredation claims (being amount allowed by Commission in supplemental report)	6,293.50
	28,105.51

The commissioners allowed the sum of $44,809.07, exclusive of the items for interest, and Congress had up to 1891 appropriated the sum of $44,813.01 in payment.

It having been ascertained that in the payment of the foregoing appropriations the Citizen Wyandottes had not received the amount to which they were entitled, Congress, on March 3, 1891 (26 Stats., 1009), appropriated the sum of $13,000, or so much thereof as might be necessary, to pay balances due the Citizen Wyandottes.

There has, therefore, been paid to the Wyandottes of all classes, in carrying out the provisions of the amended thirteenth article of the treaty of 1867, the sum of $57,813.01, leaving a balance, according to the report of the commission, of $15,686.80.

I see no reason to differ from the conclusion of the Committee on Indian Affairs, as referred to in Schedule A attached to the treaty of 1867, and of the commissioners appointed under the amended thirteenth article of that treaty, that the Wyandottes are justly entitled to the items of interest.

I think, however, that the tribal Indians should be charged with the $13,000 paid to the citizen class, to equalize the payments to each, as full payment of their entire share of the amount found due by the commission, the balance to be paid the citizen class in full discharge of their share of said amount. This would reduce the proposed appropriation from $25,000 to $15,686.80.

It is understood that the latter Indians will be satisfied with the proposed disposition of the money, but regarding this I have no other information than that conveyed by Mr. Armstrong.

It is probable that such disposition would be for the best interests of the Indians referred to in the item submitted.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,

FRANK C. ARMSTRONG,
Acting Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 234.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 20, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. MITCHELL, of Oregon, submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Secretary of the Treasury be, and he is hereby, directed to advise the Senate as to what steps have been taken, if any, by the Treasury Department looking to the deportation from the United States of all those Chinese persons who have failed to register as required by existing law.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 235.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 23, 1894.—Ordered to lie on the table and be printed.

Mr. ALLEN submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Secretary of the Navy be, and is hereby, directed to inform the Senate what percentage, if any, of the enlisted men, non-commissioned and commissioned officers of the Navy of the United States are aliens, and what percentage are citizens of the United States by birth or naturalization, properly classifying the same respectively.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 236.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 23, 1894.—Ordered to lie on the table and be printed.

Mr. ALLEN submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Secretary of War be, and is hereby, directed to inform the Senate what percentage, if any, of the enlisted men, non-commissioned and commissioned officers of the Regular Army of the United States are aliens, and what percentage are citizens of the United States by birth or naturalization, properly classifying the same respectively.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 237.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 23, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations and ordered to be printed.

Mr. CALL submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the President of the United States be, and is hereby, requested to institute negotiations for the release of citizens of the United States now held in confinement by the Government of Spain, in the Island of Cuba, upon charges of complicity with or aid to the rebellion in the Island of Cuba or resistance to the authorities, in all cases where such persons are held upon suspicion merely, and in cases where there is evidence against them, that they be brought to a speedy trial, and also that the President be requested to instruct the consul-general of the United States to make arrangements for the defense of such citizens where they are unable to procure the means to employ counsel and procure witnesses.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 238.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 24, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Appropriations and ordered to be printed.

Mr. RANSOM presented the following

PETITION FROM A COMMITTEE APPOINTED BY THE SEVERAL DEPARTMENTS OF LABOR IN THE GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE RELATIVE TO DANGEROUS CONDITION OF H STREET WING OF THE OFFICE STRUCTURE.

To the honorable members of the United States Senate:

GENTLEMEN: The undersigned, a committee appointed by the several departments of labor in the Government Printing Office to petition Congress for relief from the danger now so apparent by use of the H street wing of the office structure, respectfully submit:

(1) That said H street wing is a menace to human life, by reason of its structural weakness, its excessive overloading by material, machinery, and employes.

(2) That said H street wing is a menace to human life, by reason of its tinder-like material, indicating that an accident by fire would cause destruction—a holocaust of life and property.

(3) That said H street wing is a menace to human life, by reason of the constant jar and jolt of working machinery, the heavy pounding and vacillation caused by the necessary work, thus slowly, but surely, foreshadowing disaster.

(4) That said H street wing is a menace to human life, by reason of the age and decay of the structure, that is permeated with dry rot in timber, and crack and fissure in walls, as is manifested by braces, clamps, and other appliances intended to hold the building together.

Therefore, the undersigned committee, as enjoined by the employés of the Government Printing Office, supplemented by individual petition of said employés, pray for relief from this foreshadowed danger; that same may be immediately made possible by the appropriation of the necessary means to secure a location for and construction of a new Government Printing Office, and the construction of an annex or addition to the present structure to relieve possible danger to life and destruction of property.

It is therefore prayed that provisions for the annex or addition to the present structure will be authorized in the present sundry civil bill, by amendment thereto, should it be deemed impossible to meet the full desire of your petitioners.

CHAS. L. SPENCER,
Chairman Committee.
A. W. BOWEN,
Secretary.
S. H. BELL.
W. C. VAN MATRE.
H. A. GILBERT.
E. BURKHOLDER.
JAS. E. BERGIN.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JLY 25, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on the Judiciary and ordered to be printed.

Mr. TURPIE submitted the following

ETTER FROM W. R. STOKES, OF LEBANON, IND., SUBMITTING TWO AMENDMENTS TO THE FEDERAL CONSTITUTION.

LEBANON, IND., *July 20, 1894.*

DEAR SIR: I submit herewith two amendments to the Federal Contitution, with suggestion and recommendation that they be proposed or adoption.

The last provision of article 17 is added of necessity; for its omission rould be liable to be construed as implying a license to members of Jongress to make all they could out of private measures.

Very respectfully,

W. R. STOKES.

Hon. DAVID TURPIE,
Washington, D. C.

Amendments to the Constitution of the United States of America.

ARTICLE XVI.

Upon failure of either branch of Congress to concur in any enactment of the other branch of that body within ten days after the report or submission of the same for such concurrence, the two branches shall convene and act jointly in the disposition of such measure. And the enactments of such joint sittings shall become and be of full force and effect upon the same terms and conditions as those provided in reference to enactments of the same measure by said branches separately. And Congress shall provide rules and regulations for carrying out the above provisions, to the end that delay in action upon the matter of proposed legislation shall, so far as possible, be avoided.

ARTICLE XVII.

Whenever by reason of any right, title, or interest in or to any species of rights, interests, franchises, property, benefits, emoluments, advantages, or accommodations whatever; or whenever by reason of any relation to the owner, or person interested in, or in control of any

species of rights, interests, franchises, property, benefits, emoluments, advantages, or accommodations whatever, any member of Congress may be in a position, either directly or indirectly, to receive or derive any pecuniary or personal gain, profit, benefit, emolument, advantage, or accommodation of any kind whatever, by reason of the enactment of any proposed legislation, other than such as may be common to persons not so interested in, or related to, the subject-matter of such legislation, such member of Congress shall be ineligible to a vote in favor of such legislation. And suitable enactments shall be made by Congress for carrying out the above provisions, to the end that all general legislation shall relate to and be designed to promote only the public and general welfare or the securing of an equal distribution and imposition of burdens as the case may be; and that all private measures shall relate to and benefit only the subject thereof in the awarding of an acknowledgment or compensation due as matter of right and justice.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 25, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. VILAS submitted the following

MOTION:

That the Senate recede from so much of its amendment numbered 56, page 41, H. R. 4864, "An act to reduce taxation, to provide revenue for the Government, and for other purposes," as is contained in the ollowing words, beginning with the word "and," in line 10, and ending ith the word "ad valorem," in line 14: "and upon all sugars above umber sixteen Dutch standard in color and upon all sugars which ave been discolored there shall be levied, collected, and paid a duty f one-eighth of one cent per pound in addition to the said duty of forty er centum ad valorem."

AMENDMENT.

Mr. QUAY, to amend the motion of the Senator from Wisconsin, Ir. VILAS, by making it apply to the entire amendment numbered 56.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 241.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 25, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. HILL submitted the following

MOTION:

That the Senate recede from its amendments numbered 87 and 304, being paragraphs 109½ and 318½, in H. R. 4864, an act to reduce taxation, to provide revenue for the Government, and for other purposes.

O

3D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 242.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 25, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. CAFFERY submitted the following

MOTION:

That the conferees on the part of the Senate on H. R. 4864 be instructed to insist upon the following amendment to the sugar schedule of the said bill:

That the bounty provided in said act shall stand unrepealed to the extent that there shall be paid to the producer of sugar, from beets, sorghum, or sugar cane, grown in the United States in the year eighteen hundred and ninety-four, or from maple sap produced in the United States during the year eighteen hundred and ninety-four, under license for eighteen hundred and ninety-four, and subject to the limitations now imposed by law, on all sugars testing not less than ninety degrees by the polariscope, nine-tenths of one cent per pound, and upon such sugar testing less than ninety degrees by the polariscope and not less than eighty degrees, eight-tenths of one cent per pound.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 243.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 25, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. GRAY submitted the following

MOTION:

That the Senate insists upon its amendments to H. R. 4864, "An act to reduce taxation, to provide revenue for the Government, and for other purposes," and consents to the further conference asked by the House of Representatives.

AMENDMENTS.

Mr. QUAY, to amend the motion of the Senator from Delaware, Mr. GRAY, by adding: "Except as to so much of its amendment numbered 156, page 41, as is contained in the following words, beginning with the word 'and,' in line 10, and ending with the words 'ad valorem,' in line 14."

And upon all sugars above number sixteen Dutch standard in color and upon all sugars which have been discolored there shall be levied, collected, and paid a duty of one-eighth of one cent per pound in addition to the said duty of forty per centum ad valorem.

Which the managers upon the part of the Senate are instructed to yield.

Also to amend the motion of the Senator from Delaware, Mr. GRAY, by adding at conclusion: "Except as to amendment numbered 156, from which the Senate hereby recedes."

O

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 25, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. ALLEN submitted the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Attorney-General be, and he is hereby, directed to transmit to the Senate full copies of all telegraphic and other correspondence which may have passed between him or his office and any of the officers, agents, or attorneys of the Chicago, Rock Island and Pacific Railway Company, the Illinois Central Railway Company, the Chicago, Milwaukee and Saint Paul Railway Company, the Chicago and Northwestern Railway Company, and any and all other railways entering into Chicago that were in any manner engaged in or affected by the recent industrial troubles in the city of Chicago, Illinois, as well as all telegraphic and other correspondence with the United States district attorney at the city of Chicago, and any and all special attorneys retained or taking any part in the litigation arising out of said troubles, between the first day of June, eighteen hundred and ninety-four, and the present date.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 245.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 26, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. BLACKBURN, from the committee of conference of the two Houses on the amendments of the Senate to House bill 6373, submitted the following

CONFERENCE REPORT:

The committee of conference on the disagreeing votes of the two Houses on the amendments of the Senate to the bill (H. R. 6373) making appropriations for the support of the Army for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1895, and for other purposes, having met, after full and free conference have agreed to recommend and do recommend to their respective Houses as follows:

That the Senate recede from its amendments numbered 16, 17, 18, 20, 23, and 28.

That the House recede from its disagreement to the amendments of the Senate numbered 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 24, 26, 33, 35, 36, 37, and 38, and agree to the same.

Amendment numbered 7:

That the House recede from its disagreement to the amendment of the Senate numbered 7, and agree to the same with amendments as follows:

In line 5 of said amendment strike out the word "four" and insert in lieu thereof the word *three*, and at the end of said amendment insert the following: *and the officers of the Signal Corps shall retain the commissions held by them at the date of the next vacancy in the office of Chief Signal Officer, unless promoted in compliance with law;* and the Senate agree to the same.

Amendment numbered 9:

That the House recede from its disagreement to the amendment of the Senate numbered 9, and agree to the same with an amendment as follows:

Restore the matter stricken out by said amendment, amended as follows:

In line 12, page 6 of the bill, strike out the word "ninety" and insert in lieu thereof the words *one hundred and ten;* and the Senate agree to the same.

Amendment numbered 10:

That the House recede from its disagreement to the amendment of the Senate numbered 10, and agree to the same with amendments as follows:

In line 14 of said amendment, after the word "ninety-three," insert the following: *and said Act of May fourth, eighteen hundred and eighty,* and in line 17 of said amendment strike out the word "the" and insert in lieu thereof the word *said;* and the Senate agree to the same.

Amendment numbered 19:

That the House recede from its disagreement to the amendment of the Senate numbered 19, and agree to the same with amendments as follows:

In line 1 of said amendment strike out the words "and directed."

In line 2 of said amendment, after the word "reservation," insert the words *or reservations*, and in lines 2 and 3 of said amendment strike out the words "not prohibited by existing law;" and the Senate agree to the same.

Amendment numbered 21:

That the House recede from its disagreement to the amendment of the Senate numbered 21, and agree to the same with an amendment as follows:

At the end of the matter inserted by said amendment strike out the words "for his approval;" and the Senate agree to the same.

Amendment numbered 22:

That the House recede from its disagreement to the amendment of the Senate numbered 22, and agree to the same with an amendment as follows:

In line 2, of said amendment, strike out the word "twenty" and insert in lieu thereof the word *ten;* and the Senate agree to the same.

Amendment numbered 25:

That the House recede from its disagreement to the amendment of the Senate numbered 25, and agree to the same with an amendment as follows:

In line 13, page 15, of the bill, after the word "in," insert the word *field;* and the Senate agree to the same.

Amendment numbered 27:

That the House recede from its disagreement to the amendment of the Senate numbered 27, and agree to the same with an amendment as follows:

In lieu of the sums of money mentioned in said amendment insert *eight thousand five hundred dollars;* and the Senate agree to the same.

Amendment numbered 29:

That the House recede from its disagreement to the amendment of the Senate numbered 29, and agree to the same with amendments as follows:

In lines 3 and 4, of said amendment, strike out the words "quantity of surplus liquors, and such" and in line 5 of said amendment, after the word "property," insert the words *exclusive of liquors;* and the Senate agree to the same.

Amendment numbered 30:

That the House recede from its disagreement to the amendment of the Senate numbered 30, and agree to the same with an amendment as follows:

In lieu of the sum proposed insert *eight thousand dollars;* and the Senate agree to the same.

Amendment numbered 31:

That the House recede from its disagreement to the amendment of the Senate numbered 31, and agree to the same with an amendment as follows:

In lieu of the sum proposed insert *thirteen thousand dollars;* and the Senate agree to the same.

Amendment numbered 32:

That the House recede from its disagreement to the amendment of

the Senate numbered 32, and agree to the same with an amendment as follows:

In line 23, page 23, of the bill, strike out the word "purchase" and insert in lieu thereof the words *amount required*, and at the end of the matter inserted by said amendment strike out the words "for his approval;" and the Senate agree to the same.

Amendment numbered 34:

That the House recede from its disagreement to the amendment of the Senate numbered 34, and agree to the same with an amendment as follows:

In lieu of the word stricken out by said amendment insert the words *depots and;* and the Senate agree to the same.

JO. C. S. BLACKBURN,
F. M. COCKRELL,
H. M. TELLER,
Managers on the part of the Senate.

JOS. H. OUTHWAITE,
O. LAPHAM,
J. A. T. HULL,
Managers on the part of the House.

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IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JUNE 21, 1894.—Mr. GIBSON (for Mr. BLACKBURN) submitted the following resc tion; which was referred to the Committee to Audit and Control the Conting Expenses of the Senate.

JULY 27, 1894.—Reported by Mr. CAMDEN without amendment and ordered to printed.

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Secretary of the Senate be, and he hereby authorized and directed to pay, out of the appropriation for misc laneous items of the contingent fund fo the Senate, to Mrs. Katie Bi mother of Edward N. Davie, deceased, late a folder in the folding ro of the Senate, the sum of three hundred and sixty dollars, being amount equal to six months salary as folder aforesaid, the said sum include all funeral or other allowances.

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DATA NOT AVAILABLE

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 26, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Public Lands and ordered to be printed.

Mr. SQUIRE submitted the following

MEMORIAL FROM THE GEOLOGICAL SOCIETY OF AMERICA FAVORING THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A NATIONAL PARK IN THE STATE OF WASHINGTON.

To the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled:

At a meeting of the Geological Society of America, in Madison, Wis., August 15, 1893, a committee was appointed for the purpose of memorializing the Congress in relation to the establishment of a national park in the State of Washington to include Mount Rainier, often called Mount Tacoma. The committee consists of Dr. David T. Day, Mr. S. F. Emmons, and Mr. Bailey Willis.

At a meeting of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, in Madison, Wis., August 21, 1893, a committee was appointed by that body for the same purpose as above mentioned, consisting of Maj. J. W. Powell, Prof. Joseph Le Conte, Prof. I. C. Russell, Mr. B. E. Fernow, and Dr. C. H. Merriam.

At a meeting of the National Geographic Society, held in Washington, D. C., on October 13, 1893, there was appointed a committee for the purpose above mentioned, consisting of Hon. Gardiner G. Hubbard, Hon. Watson C. Squire, Mr. John W. Thompson, Miss Mary F. Waite, and Miss Eliza R. Scidmore.

At a meeting of the Sierra Club, held in San Francisco December 30, 1893, a committee for the same purpose was appointed, composed of Mr. John Muir, President D. S. Jordon, Mr. R. M. Johnson, Mr. George B. Bayley, Mr. P. B. Van Trump.

At a meeting of the Appalachian Mountain Club, held in Boston April 11, 1894, a similar committee was appointed, consisting of Mr. John Ritchie, jr., Rev. E. C. Smith, Dr. Charles E. Fay.

The committees thus appointed were instructed by the several bodies to which they belong to cooperate in the preparation of a memorial to Congress, setting forth the substantial reasons for the establishment of such park.

Pursuant to their instructions the committees present the following memorial to the Congress, and pray that such action may be taken by the honorable Senators and Representatives as will secure to the people of the United States the benefits of a national park which shall include the area mentioned above. In support of their prayer they beg to submit the following statement:

By proclamation of the President, in compliance with the statutes

provided therefor, a Pacific Forest Reserve has been established in the State of Washington, the western portion of which is nearly coincident with the tract of land to be included in the national park for which your memorialists pray.

The western part of this reserve includes many features of unique interest and wonderful grandeur, which fit it peculiarly to be a national park, forever set aside for the pleasure and instruction of the people. The region is one of such exceptional rainfall and snowfall that the preservation of its forests is of unusual importance as a protection against floods in the lower valleys; but the scenic features, which mark it out for a national park, attract tourists, who set fire to the timber. This destruction goes on notwithstanding it is a forest reserve, and will continue until protection is afforded by adequate supervision of the area, whether as a reserve or park.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION.

The reserve is traversed through the middle from north to south by the crest of the Cascade Range, which has an elevation varying from 5,300 to 6,800 feet. This is the divide between tributaries of Puget Sound, flowing west, and those of Yakima River, flowing east. Mount Rainier, the isolated volcanic peak, 14,400 feet high, stands 12 miles west of the divide, from which it is separated by a deep valley.

The eastern half of the reserve differs from the western in climate, in flora, and in fauna, in geographic and geologic features, and in aspects of scenery. The eastern slope of the Cascade Range within the reserve is a mountainous region, with summits rising to a general elevation of 6,500 to 7,600 feet above the sea. It is forest covered and presents many attractions to the tourist and hunter; but it is not peculiar among the mountain regions of America either for grandeur or interest, and it is not an essential part of the area to be set apart as a national park.

The western slope of the Cascades within the reserve is short and steep as compared with the eastern. Much of it is precipitous, particularly opposite Mount Rainier, where its bare walls would appear most grand were they not in the shadow of that overpowering peak. North and south of Rainier this slope is more gradual and densely wooded.

The western half of the Pacific reserve, that portion which it is proposed shall be made a national park, is characterized by Mount Rainier, whose summit is but 4 miles from the western boundary of the reserve and whose glaciers extend beyond its limits.

Mount Tacoma is not simply a volcanic cone, peculiar for its hugeness. It was formerly a vast volcanic dome, 30 miles in radius to the north, west, and south; but rivers have cut deep canyons, glaciers have carved ample amphitheaters back into the mass, and now many serrate ridges rising from a few hundred to 10,000 feet above the sea converge at that altitude to support the central pyramid, which towers more than 4,000 feet above its base.

This grand mountain is not, like Mount Blanc, merely the dominant peak of a chain of snow mountains; it is the only snow peak in view, Mount St. Helens and Mount Adams being, like it, isolated and many miles distant. Rainier is majestic in its isolation, reaching 6,000 to 8,000 feet above its neighbors. It is superb in its boldness, rising from one canyon 11,000 feet in 7 miles. Not only is it the grandest mountain in this country, it is one of the grand mountains of the world, to be

named with St. Elias, Fusiyama, and Ararat, and the most superb summits of the Alps. Eminent scientists of England and Germany, who, as members of the Alpine Club of Switzerland and travelers of wide experience, would naturally be conservative in their judgment, have borne witness to the majesty of the scenery about Rainier.

In 1883 Prof. Zittel, a well-known German geologist, and Prof. James Bryce, member of Parliament and author of the American Commonwealth, made a report on the scenery about Mount Rainier. Among other things they said:

The scenery of Mount Rainier is of rare and varied beauty. The peak itself is as noble a mountain as we have ever seen in its lines and structure. The glaciers which descend from its snow fields present all the characteristic features of those in the Alps, and though less extensive than the ice streams of the Mount Blanc or Monta Rosa groups are in their crevasses and serracs equally striking and equally worthy of close study. We have seen nothing more beautiful in Switzerland or Tyrol, in Norway or in the Pyrenees, than the Carbon River glaciers and the great Puyallup glaciers; indeed, the ice in the latter is unusually pure, and the crevasses unusually fine. The combination of ice scenery with woodland scenery of the grandest type is to be found nowhere in the Old World, unless it be in the Himalayas, and, so far as we know, nowhere else on the American Continent.

These eminent and experienced observers further say:

We may perhaps be permitted to express a hope that the suggestion will at no distant date be made to Congress that Mount Rainier should, like the Yosemite Valley and the geyser region of the Upper Yellowstone, be reserved by the Federal Government and treated as a national park.

But Mount Tacoma is single not merely because it is superbly majestic; it is an arctic island in a temperate zone. In a bygone age an arctic climate prevailed over the Northwest and glaciers covered the Cascade Range. Arctic animals and arctic plants then lived throughout the region. As the climate became milder and glaciers melted, the creatures of the cold climate were limited in their geographic range to the districts of the shrinking glaciers. On the great peak the glaciers linger still. They give to it its greatest beauty. They are themselves magnificent, and with them survives a colony of arctic animals and plants which can not exist in the temperate climate of the less lofty mountains. These arctic forms are as effectually isolated as shipwrecked sailors on an island in mid-ocean. There is no refuge for them beyond their haunts on ice-bound cliffs. But even there the birds and animals are no longer safe from the keen sportsman, and the few survivors must soon be exterminated unless protected by the Government in a national park.

ECONOMIC RESOURCES.

The area of the Pacific forest reserve includes valuable timber and important water supplies. It is said to contain coal, gold, and silver.

The timber on the western slope differs from that on the eastern in size and density of growth and in kinds of trees. The forests of Puget Sound are world-renowned for the magnitude and beauty of their hemlocks, cedars, and firs. Their timber constitutes one of the most important resources of the State. Nowhere are they more luxuriant than on the foothills west and north of Mount Rainier. But their value as timber is there subordinate to their value as regulators of floods. The Puyallup River, whose lower valley is a rich hop garden, is even now subject to floods during the rapid melting of the snow on Mount Rainier in the limited area above timber line. In the broader area below timber line, but above 3,000 feet in elevation, the depth of snow in the winter of 1893 was 9 to 15 feet. Protected by the dense canopy of the fir and hemlock trees this snow melts slowly and the

river is high from March to June. But let the forest be once destroyed by fire or by lumbermen and the snows of each winter, melting in early spring, will annually overwhelm the Puyallup Valley and transform it into a gravelly waste. The same is true of White River and the Nisqually.

The forests of the eastern slope, tributary to the Yakima, are of even greater importance as water preservers. They constitute a great reservoir, holding back the precipitation of the wet season and allowing it to filter down when most needed by crops. In the Yakima Valley water gives to land its value. Storage of flood waters and extensive distribution by canals is necessary. The forests being preserved to control the water, the natural storage basins should be improved and canals built. For these reasons it is most important that no part of the forest reserve should be sacrificed, even though the eastern half is not included in the national park.

The boundaries of the proposed national park have been so drawn as to exclude from its area all lands upon which coal, gold, or other valuable minerals are supposed to occur, and they conform to the purpose that the park shall include all features of peculiar scenic beauty without encroaching on the interests of miners or settlers.

ACCESSIBILITY.

None save those who can march and camp in the primeval forest can now visit Mount Rainier; but it is the wilderness, not the distance, that makes it difficult of approach. On the west the distance up the Nisqually River from the railroad at Yelm Prairie to the reserve is but 40 miles. Though heavily timbered, the valley of the Nisqually affords an easy route for a railroad. The Cowlitz valley also offers a line of approach without difficulty by rail, it being about 50 miles from the railroad to the reserve.

On the northwest the railroad at Wilkeson is but 23 miles from the summit of Mount Rainier, and the glaciers can be reached by riding 25 miles through the great forest.

On the north the Cascade branch of the Northern Pacific Railroad crosses the range, only 13 miles in a direct line and 19 miles along the summit from the northern limit of the reserve.

On the east the city of North Yakima is but 62 miles from the summit of Mount Rainier.

The proposed park covers a mountain region which lies across the line of travel from east to west. The railroad winds northward; the travel down the Columbia River turns southward to avoid it. The great current of tourists which flows north and south through Portland, Tacoma, Seattle, Vancouver, and Alaska passes to the west within sight of Mount Rainier, and when the grand old mountain is obscured by clouds the travelers linger to see it, or, passing regretfully on their way, know that they have missed the finest view of their trip.

When a railroad is built up the Nisqually or Cowlitz valley to the park and connection by stages is assured northward to the Cascade branch of the Northern Pacific Railroad and eastward to Yakima, the flood of travel will be diverted through the park.

ROUTES WITHIN THE RESERVE.

The point which combines accessibility with surroundings of great beauty, and which is therefore most appropriate as a hotel site, is south-

east of Mount Rainier, on one of the spurs of the Tootoosh Mountains, near the Cowlitz Valley. To open this region to travel it would be sufficient to establish the hotel and its connections down the Nisqually or Cowlitz Valley, together with trails to points of interest within the park. From the hotel a principal trail would extend north to the Emmons and White River glaciers, which would thus be easily accessible, and thence the railroad at Wilkeson could readily be reached on horseback over the old Northern Pacific trail. In the future, stage roads or possibly a railroad would be extended over the Cowlitz Pass to the eastern slope, North Yakima would be reached via the Tieton or Tannum Valley, and Tannum Lake would become a favorite resort.

But the highway which would challenge the world for its equal in grand scenery would extend from the Cowlitz Pass northward along the crest of the range to the Cascade branch. The distance is 50 miles, 31 in the park and 19 beyond it to the railroad. Within the reserve the summit is open and park-like. On the east is a sea of mountains; on the west is a bold descent of 3,000 feet to the valleys of Cowlitz and White rivers, beyond which Tacoma rises in overpowering grandeur, 8,000 feet above the road and only 12 miles distant.

CONCLUSION.

A committee of your memorialists has carefully examined the existing maps of the State of Washington with special reference to the position of this reserve, and finds that the boundaries of the reserve are further east, in relation to Mount Rainier, than was supposed. The western boundary traverses the slope of Mount Rainier at altitudes of 7,000 to 9,000 feet, and the glaciers extend several miles beyond it. In order to include all of the glacial area and the immediately adjacent forest on the west, your memorialists respectfully recommend that the western boundary of the park be drawn one range west of that of the reserve, viz, at the range line between ranges 6 and 7 east of the Willamette meridian. By this change no part of the Wilkeson-Carbonado coal field would be included in the park.

Your memorialists find, as already stated, that it is not necessary to include the eastern slope of the Cascades in the park, and furthermore that it is desirable to leave the Natchez Pass on the north and the Cowlitz Pass on the south open for the construction of railroads. Your memorialists therefore pray that the park be defined by the following boundaries: Beginning at the northwest corner of sec. 19, T. 18 N., R. 7 E. of the Willamette meridian; thence south 24 miles more or less to the southwest corner of sec. 18, T. 14 N., R. 7 E.; thence east 27 miles more or less to the summit of the Cascade Range; thence in a northerly direction to a point east of the place of beginning, and thence west 26 miles more or less to the place of beginning.

Your memorialists respectfully represent that—

Railroad lines have been surveyed and after the establishment of a national park would soon be built to its boundaries. The concessions for a hotel, stopping places, and stage routes could be leased and the proceeds devoted to the maintenance of the park. The policing of the park could be performed from the barracks at Vancouver by details of soldiers, who would thus be given useful and healthful employment from May to October.

The establishment of a hotel would afford opportunity for a weather station, which, in view of the controlling influence exerted by Mount

for the protection from floods of the people of Washington in the Yakima, Cowlitz, Nisqually, Puyallup, and White River valleys, and for the pleasure and education of the nation, your memorialists pray that the area above described be declared a national park forever.

For the National Geographic Society:

GARDNER G. HUBBARD,
President.

For the American Association for the Advancement of Science:

J. W. POWELL.

For the Geological Society of America:

BAILEY WILLIS.

For the Sierra Club:

JOHN MUIR.

For the Appalachian Mountain Club:

JOHN RITCHIE, JR.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *June 27, 1894.*

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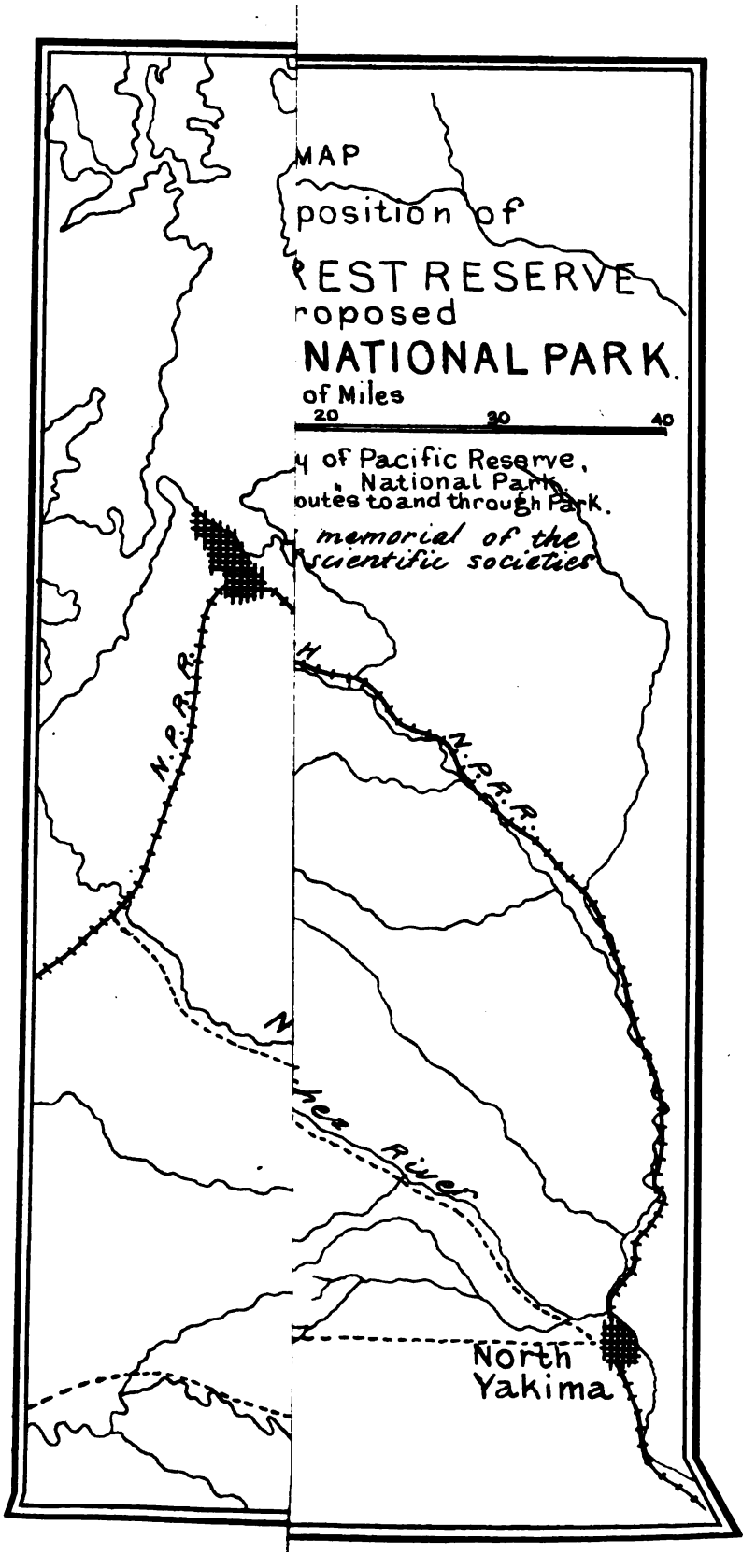
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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 248.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 27, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on the District of Columbia and ordered to be printed.

Mr. KYLE submitted the following

ARGUMENT IN FAVOR OF THE BILL (S. 2146) TO INCORPORATE THE NATIONAL GAS AND ELECTRIC LIGHT, HEAT, AND POWER COMPANY.

ADVERSE ACTION TAKEN BY THE COMMISSIONERS ON THE GAS BILL.

The Commissioners this afternoon recommended adverse action on House of Representatives bill 7310, "To incorporate the National Gas and Electric Light, Heat, and Power Company of the District of Columbia," which was referred to them for examination and report. The Commissioners consider it unwise to authorize the tearing up of the street pavements for the purpose of laying a second set of gas mains and electric-wire conduits, in view of the Congressional control of existing companies with reference to illuminating power, quality, and price of gas and every other matter concerning gas company charters, and also in view of the bill now pending, which contemplates the municipal lighting of public spaces and buildings by electricity generated by the power of Great Falls.

The Commissioners state further that they have recommended on various bills that the price of gas in the District be reduced and the quality of gas be increased.

The Commissioners believe that permanent construction in public spaces should belong to the public, and that there does not appear to be sufficient reason in this case to warrant a departure from that policy.

After six weeks of labor, following a hearing upon the bill, the District Commissioners have favored the committee with a report of their views thereon, which is embodied in the above extract from a local newspaper.

They have held back their report longer than propriety or a fair treatment of the measure proposed by its incorporators warranted at their hands after the hearing on bill (H. R. 7310) before them; and, in answer to the reason given for their adverse report, we need only say that it is manifest therefrom that the sole object of their opposition to the measure arises from an unaccountable interest in the welfare of the local monopoly—the Washington Gas-Light Company.

They say that "it is unwise to authorize the tearing up of the street pavements for the purpose of laying a second set of mains and electric-wire conduits."

This is a mere pretense. It is unfair, and not in accord with their recommendations favorable to other corporations than gas companies.

They do *not oppose*, but, on the contrary, they *favor* the tearing up of the street pavements over a large section of the city for the Belt Line connections with the Eckington and Soldiers' Home Railway, and with the Metropolitan Railway, and the loop down Louisiana avenue from Fifth street.

They urged the tearing up of the streets to change the motive power of the Columbia Railway.

They urge the tearing up of streets for the L Street Crosstown Railway to connect with Belt Line.

Also for the Rock Creek Railway extension into the city.

Also the tearing up of the streets on the whole route of the Metropolitan Railway to change its power.

They report favorably upon the tearing up of the streets by the Mount Vernon Railway.

They leave their desks in a body and come to the committee room to advocate and urge upon you the uptearing of the streets for the proposed sewer extensions.

They recognize the right of the local gas company to tear up the streets whenever and wherever they wish to lay new mains and repair old and leaky mains.

They have favored the uptearing of the streets for the Electric Light Company and for the Chesapeake and Ohio Telephone Company, and they recommend the uptearing of the streets to put telegraph wires underground.

All these instances make it manifest that the uptearing of streets necessarily involved in the erection of the new company's plant cuts but a trifling figure, really, so far as the true reason underlying their adverse report is concerned.

The improvements involved in the above works called for extensive and widespread uptearing of the streets, yet, to them, that is unobjectionable in *those cases.*

Far less objectionable will be the work of installing the conduits and mains of the new company, for under section 8 of the bill they provide that their work shall be done under such regulations as may be prescribed by the Commissioners; and section 9 provides for a $200,000 bond for faithful repair of streets that may be opened for their conduits and mains, and through the contemplated use of alleys wherever available the disturbing of streets will be wholly avoided in many cases.

And with these safeguards the objection mentioned is *utterly* groundless and *unworthy* of serious consideration by reasonable men, since self-interest would compel the company to carry the installing of their plant with scrupulous regard to the public uses of the streets, so as to avoid any and every cause of complaint as to their work, for which they might be liable on their bond, the work being but simple engineering, easily constructed, and involving no reasonable delay in doing it.

I respectfully submit that an *impartial* performance of duty by the Commissioners in the public interest should secure in their reports favorable comment upon all measures that are manifestly in the public interest, and should they find a bill weak in any respect, or wanting in any restrictions or limitations, or requiring verbal changes, in their judgment, such matters should receive criticism at their hands with suggestion of amendments to correct the defects they may point out, that the interests of the public might be secured.

Nothing of this kind was done in the present case. They certainly had some knowledge of their own that would enlighten the consideration of this important question, yet the committees of Congress get but the meager suggestions I have criticised, which are intended to defeat the measure we advocate.

WHAT THEY FAILED TO STATE.

On the other hand, what is it that is ignored by these Commissioners in their adverse report? They know well from personal knowledge, and from testimony before the committee in its recent investigations, that

because of the rusting out and leakage of the Washington Gaslight Company's mains, in their trenches under our streets and sidewalks, that company is compelled every year to dig up the streets all over the city, while the new conduits of the new company once constructed need never be disturbed.

They know from observation, as every intelligent man in the city knows, that, wherever their mains are exposed for such repairs, the earth on their line is found impregnated with the poisonous leakings from the mains, to the prejudice of the health of the public.

DESTRUCTION OF SHADE TREES BY GAS LEAKAGES.

The construction of the new company's conduits will in the future (so far as their plant is concerned) prevent the destruction of the beautiful shade trees throughout our city, which is now being caused by the leakages from the gas pipes of the Washington Gaslight Company, which saturate the soil with gas and thus kill vegetation.

As to this fact I quote from page 484 of the report of William Saunders, superintendent of gardens and grounds, for 1891, published by the U. S. Department of Agriculture. He says:

> There is a loss of trees, more or less extensive, where gas pipes are laid near their roots, from leakage of gas. The escaping gas permeates the soil and destroys the roots. Perfect or absolute immunity from this evil is probably impracticable, and, when detected, *should, of course, be promptly remedied.* The worst feature is that it is seldom discovered until damage has been done. The soil is well saturated with gas before its presence has been detected, and it is then too late for the application of any remedy, even if remedies were known, as far as relates to the purification of the soil. The best that can be done is to remove the soil, replacing it with fresh material, and plant another tree. This may not always prove successful at first, as it is a difficult matter to remove all the poisoned earth, and sometimes several removals will be required before a healthy growth is secured. It may be noted that gas-poisoned soil is the unsuspected cause of many deaths among trees in cities.

And this is no trifling consideration, but involves the continued creation of an unsanitary condition amounting to a nuisance demanding action on the part of the Commissioners to abate it in the interest of the public health; and an intelligent discharge of their duty should have prompted them to favor an enterprise which offered a remedy for and a prevention in the future of that existing evil. They should not have ignored it.

The new company contemplates building conduits so to be constructed as to prevent any impregnation of the soil from leakages of their pipes, and prevents any possible injury to gas mains from contact with electric wires laid in the new conduits.

The above considerations effectually dispose of the first objection given to the bill by the District Commissioners, as being in exact opposition to their recommendations in favor of other enterprises.

The Commissioners try to strengthen that weak objection by adding that it is made—

> in view of the Congressional control of existing companies with reference to illuminating power, quality, and price of gas, and also in view of the bill now pending which contemplates the municipal lighting of public places and buildings by power from the Great Falls.

How absurdly ridiculous is that suggestion. If the honorable Commissioners had given any careful and fair consideration to the beneficial provisions of the bill H. R. No. 7310 in the interest of the consumers, who are the general public, they would have remembered that by resolution of the House, set out in Report No. 629, second session Fifty-third Congress, and the investigation that followed, it was

recognized that grave injury to the public, affecting eyesight and health of consumers in this District, and destruction of hangings and furniture in private homes, was so notorious as to command investigation and relief, and that the president of the Washington Gaslight Company had sworn that it was not possible to make gas at a fair profit for $1 per 1,000 cubic feet (p. 9, Report 1460, first session Forty-ninth Congress), and that this wealthy corporation bitterly opposes every effort to reduce the price of gas or to improve its quality. (See House Report 2003, second session Forty-seventh Congress.)

They would have remembered their own very recent and most extraordinary report to your committee, favoring the passage of a bill (H. R. 4279) which in its effect is to authorize the Washington Gaslight Company to manufacture and supply to the people of this District gas full of impurities, dangerous to health, while with strange care they so word the penalty clause as to make it sure that it can never be enforced. It is a fraud upon the people. In support of this I refer to to exhibits A and B hereto, showing the Cooper bill as introduced and the amendments thereto, which we denounce.

And, further, they would have recalled the fact that they adhered to that recommendation in favor of the Washington Gaslight Company in open expression of preference for it, rather than see adopted the Grady bill (H. R. 7412), which provides for a gas absolutely free from impurities; and they made petty and groundless objections to that bill, which, as a measure in the interest of the public, should have commanded their unqualified approval.

The petty objections were covered by a new bill (H. R. 7560), and yet, although this latter bill demanded from the Commissioners cordial, unqualified approval and a recommendation for its adoption, in lieu of the Washington Gaslight Company's bill (H. R. 4279), this they would not give, but reiterated their preference to that bill (H. R. 4279) to legalize the manufacture of impure gas by that company.

IMPURITIES OF THE GAS SUPPLIED BY THE WASHINGTON GAS-LIGHT COMPANY.

The bad quality of the gas supplied has for many years been the cause of complaints to Congress.

The House resolution of October 14, 1893, under which the Heard investigation was held, declared that—

> Whereas the eyesight of clerks employed in Government buildings is impaired by this inferior gas supplied by the said company.

The fact being one not to be contradicted, it might have been added that the eyesight of the thousands of children attending our public schools is also being impaired, and it is a notable fact that the use of eyeglasses amongst those little ones is alarmingly on the increase.

No cause can be suggested for this deplorable condition of things other than the very bad gaslight under which they are made to apply themselves to their schoolbooks to prepare for recitations.

This consideration alone should suffice as solid reason for a change in the kind of gas to be supplied.

The impurities existing in the gas is admitted to be a fact.

The impurities arising from the burning of this gas which are classified as injurious to health are:

Carbonic oxide.
Carbonic acid.
Sulphureted hydrogen.
Ammonia.

These affect the purity of the air we breathe and cause damage to pictures and hangings. The imperfect light is injurious to the eyesight of those who are compelled to read by it.

In the recent investigation under the resolution referred to the witnesses for the gas company sought to explain away the cause of these impurities and of this defective gaslight, so that the drastic measures that *should* be applied by Congress to force a correction thereof *might* not be recommended.

It was sought to attribute the sole cause of insufficiency of light to the defective pipes, or choke service of the pipes used (Ford's evidence, p. 29; Supt. Leatch's, p. 15, Report 629), evidence which apparently satisfied the chairman of the committee.

Since, he says in his report, page 3:

> From all the facts adduced, your committee believes that with a sufficient flow of gas of the quality at present being furnished there probably would be very general satisfaction amongst consumers, if the price charged was thought to be a reasonable one.

And further on, as to the service being (last fall) "worse than usual and generally unsatisfactory," he says:

> The probable cause assigned by the company, and substantially concurred in by the inspector, Dr. Ford, is the crystallization of the naphthalin in the service pipes, the cause of which seems not to be definitely understood, is not peculiarly attributable to the method of making or distributing the gas furnished by this company.

That makes a neat summing up for the company.

But the Grady Bill (H. R. 7560) had not then been before that committee.

But we declare that these statements of the report are not tenable, since the present quality of gas furnished by that company is altogether objectionable, both as to its small illuminating power and its gross and dangerous impurities.

(See Congressman Grady's letter to Chairman Heard, Committee on the District of Columbia.)

Moreover, we declare that the cause of the trouble he refers to is definitely understood by experts, and had they been interrogated properly the evidence of the witnesses would have shown what is incontrovertible, that the so-called crystallization of naphthalin in the pipes is simply occasioned by the process used by the Washington Gas Light Company, which, by the overloading of their gas with the gumming oil thrown down by the condensation whilst in the service pipes, lodging therein and destroying the natural flow of gas, arresting and depositing naphthalin contained in their coal gas mixed with their impure water gas in the ratio of one to two, and which, by stratification, according to the gravities of the gas, not only causes bad light, but the blowing at the burner, which we often observe, and also the deposit of naphthalin in the service pipe.

Why is it necessary to overload their gas with this amount of carbon? The answer is, because it is necessary for them to cover up the other impure gases (nonilluminators, but heat-producing elements).

This condition of things, originated in and caused by those processes which are used by the Washington Gaslight Company, they now seek to perpetuate and to fasten upon this suffering community by an act of Congress.

In this bill (H. R. 4279) they admit three impurities—sulphur, ammonia, and sulphureted hydrogen—and provide authority for having 20 grains of sulphur, in any form, in 100 cubic feet of gas, and 5 grains of ammonia in 100 cubic feet of gas, and then say: "The gas shall be free from

the impurity known as sulphureted hydrogen." Wherein there is an inconsistency difficult to account for.

The bill says nothing of carbonic acid, carbonic oxide, or bisulphide of carbon, all obnoxious poisons, which are not prohibited to this company in the gas they supply to citizens.

Is it not patent that it is not the public interests and the welfare of the people that the Commissioners' report would conserve, but rather the interest of that gas monopoly?

They say, further, that Congress controls the price of gas. That being so, was it not their duty (if, as they pretend, they look to the interests of the public) to recommend a measure which gave absolutely pure gas to the private consumer at only 75 cents per 1,000 cubic feet, instead of urging with pressing earnestness that the Washington Gaslight Company be authorized to make and supply impure gas at $1.25 per 1,000 cubic feet.

ELECTRIC LIGHTING.

Now, take their final point, that a bill is pending "to authorize municipal lighting by electricity from the power of the Great Falls of the Potomac."

Passing by the fact that it is only a pending measure, which may never be authorized by Congress, you will observe that it only calls for municipal lighting of public spaces and buildings and does not make provision for supplying light to private consumers who might desire it, and it is not to be expected that the Government will supply electric light for use in private houses in opposition to local companies.

Be that as it may, we have no objection to an amendment to our bill providing that whenever Congress shall by legislation favor assuming control of lighting the public places and buildings by electricity generated from the Great Falls it shall have the power to take control of the electric-lighting plant of the new company, where needed therefor, and have the use of its conduits for that purpose, upon paying therefor a reasonable compensation, to be determined by any commission that may be provided for that purpose.

We invite attention to the scheme for municipal lighting reported by Gen. Casey, under Senate resolution of March 1, 1894, from which it appears that, apart from the cost of the water privileges to be purchased from the estate of Gen. B. F. Butler, if the title can be had, the cost of the electric plant is estimated at $3,764,930, while the cost of operating it for 6,538 lights is to be $203,352.23, which is equal to $52.33 per light. Now, this need not be, since our company can supply this light at 80 per cent only of that cost.

This much for the objections of the Commissioners. Now, as further proof that in making up their report they only had in mind the question of how they could prevent competition with the Washington Gaslight Company, whose interest their report is aimed to protect. we would invite your attention to the fact that they could not find one word to utter commendatory of our offer to supply an absolutely pure gas at one-half the present price charged by the company now monopolizing the gas business of the District, and further, they confine their views to the matter of illuminating gas.

HEAT AND POWER.

They ignore altogether the advantage to flow to the general public from the heat and power, which it will be a large part of this company's business to supply.

This heat supply will minimize the expenditures for fuel in every home; the power supplied will also prove a welcome opportunity for economical operations of factories, the encouragement of which in every city is a source of municipal wealth, attracting, as it must, large numbers of thrifty and industrious citizens to our cities.

It goes without saying that the enterprise that we propose to install under this bill must find favor with every member of the Senate and House of Representatives who favors the reduction of the cost of living for all citizens and voters, especially those of most moderate means, who are the great majority everywhere, and who are demanding throughout the length and breadth of our land relief from the burdensome levies of grinding wealthy corporations.

Congress has already put itself on record against local monopoly of gas elsewhere.

It has passed a bill authorizing the laying of gas mains from Minneapolis, under the waters of the Mississippi River, to St. Paul, which will produce competition.

In New York the East River has been tunneled to cheapen the cost of gas to consumers in Long Island City.

In Chicago a monopoly seeks to control all the gas companies by a combine or trust, which will keep up the high prices of gas, an oppression of the people who have to pay the bills.

And in its last section this bill (H. R. 7310) provides for the forfeiture of its charter, in the event of a sale to a local corporation. So this company means positive good faith.

Does the Washington Gas Light Company merit such protection from the Commissioners of the District or from Congress?

Is it not a notorious fact, demonstrated by the evidence taken by the committee of Congress in 1886 and 1893, and from the reports of the committees based thereon, that with an actual individual outlay of cash for its stock of less than $500,000, the stockholders received from the earnings of the company $2,000,000 of stock (*see* McIlhenny's testimony, pp. 44 to 48, first session Forty-ninth Congress), the par value of each share of which is $20, and it has a market value of $50 per share, and its dividends amount to from 10 to 20 per cent per annum; the company, in addition to the payments of which large dividends, pays a very heavy salary roll to its officers, and is daily accumulating and adding to an enormous surplus fund which it proposes to convert into stock for distribution amongst its stockholders whenever Congress shall authorize an increase of its capital stock. (*See* exhibit 3, p. 60, report 629, second session Fifty-third Congress.)

Their opposition to the coming of a competing company is natural, but selfish and most unreasonable so far as it is addressed to your judgment. They have had enough from the community to satisfy their greed.

The saving to the Government and to the District that would flow from the passage of bill H. R. 7310 would be, it is thought, from $100,000 to $125,000 per annum at least.

Now, the incorporators of the National Gas and Electric Light, Heat, and Power Company know the needs and wishes of this community just as well and truly as do the Commissioners of the District. There is nothing abstruse or difficult to understand in their propositions.

Every section of the bill (H. R. 7310) has been framed to protect every public and private interest, and to put upon the company every restriction, bond, and limitation that would insure for the people of

gers menacing to health, and as tending to reduce the expense, and adding to the comforts of living.

In answer to an inquiry by the subcommittee, I will state that being animated by a desire to have our bill so framed as to compel on the part of the officers of the proposed company the management of its affairs in a *strictly business-like* and absolutely safe manner, we will cheerfully consent to the amendment suggested, which is in the following words:

Provided, That the issue of the bonds of said corporation shall only be to such an amount as shall, in addition to the proceeds received from the sale of the stock of the company at par, be necessary for the actual cost of installing the plant: and *provided further,* That the bonds of this corporation authorized by this act shall not be sold at less than ninety-five cents on the dollar.

And supplementing my remarks with an extract from the Baltimore Sun of July 18 instant (Exhibit C), showing that gas is manufactured elsewhere at less than $1 per 1,000 cubic feet, I submit my argument for your favorable consideration.

F. P. B. SANDS,
Counsel for Incorporators.

EXHIBIT A.

A BILL relating to the sale of gas in the District of Columbia.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the Washington Gaslight Company is authorized to charge and collect, after the passage of this Act, for illuminating gas furnished to and paid for by the Government of the United States and other consumers in the District of Columbia, at the rate of one dollar per thousand cubic feet: *Provided,* That if consumers other than the Government shall not pay monthly any gas bill within ten days after the same shall have been presented, said company may charge and collect from said consumer so failing to pay said bill as aforesaid one dollar and twenty-five cents per thousand cubic feet for the gas furnished to said consumer during said month.

any gas bill within ten days after the same shall have been presented, said company may charge and collect from said consumer so failing to pay said bill as aforesaid one dollar and twenty-five cents per thousand cubic feet for the gas furnished to said consumer during said month.

SEC. 2. That section one of an Act entitled "An Act regulating gas works," approved June twenty-third, eighteen hundred and seventy-four, is amended so as to read as follows: "That from and after the thirtieth day of June, eighteen hundred and seventy-four, the illuminating power of the gas furnished by any gaslight company, person, or persons in the District of Columbia shall be equal to sixteen candles by the Bunsen photometer, using the English parliamentary-standard Argand burner, having fifteen holes and a seven-inch chimney, consuming five cubic feet of gas per hour; and such gas shall not contain more than twenty grains of sulphur in any form in one hundred cubic feet, nor more than five grains of ammonia in any form in one hundred cubic feet, and shall be free of the impurity known as sulphureted hydrogen, said impurity to be determined by passing the gas through a glass vessel containing strips of bibulous paper moistened with a solution of the acetate of lead, and if any discoloration of the test paper is found to have taken place this is to be held conclusive as to the presence of sulphureted hydrogen in the gas. When the illuminating gas supplied by any company, person, or persons in the District of Columbia shall at any one time be of less illuminating power or of less purity than according to the standard just heretofore given, it shall be so reported by the inspector of gas and meters to the company, person, or persons supplying the same, who shall be subject to a penalty of one hundred dollars, to be recovered before the proper tribunal and paid into the treasury of the District of Columbia aforesaid for each and every day during which such violation shall continue: *Provided, however,* That if it shall appear that such deviation from the above-named standards could not have been prevented by ordinary care and prudence, but was occasioned by some unavoidable cause, then the said penalty shall not be enforced."

SEC. 3. That any gas company or person placing a gas meter in service in the District of Columbia that has not been inspected, proved, and sealed, as provided for by the Act of March third, eighteen hundred and seventy-three, entitled "An Act making appropriations for the expenses of the government of the District of Columbia for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, eighteen hundred and ninety-four, and for other purposes," for each and every such violation of said Act shall be subject to a penalty of one hundred dollars, to be recovered before the proper tribunal of the District of Columbia.

SEC. 4. That a clerk shall be appointed by the Commissioners of the District of Columbia to perform clerical services and assist generally in the work required in the laboratories of the inspector of gas and meters, and his compensation shall be one thousand dollars per annum. That an additional inspector of lamps shall be appointed by said Commissioners, and his compensation shall be nine hundred dollars per annum.

EXHIBIT C.

[Baltimore Sun, July 18, 1894.]

THE MOVEMENT FOR CHEAPER AND BETTER GAS FOR CONSUMERS.—RADICAL REDUCTION BY THE HOUSE.—A GENERAL DEMAND THAT THE QUALITY BE IMPROVED AND THE PRICE REDUCED TO $1 PER 1,000 CUBIC FEET—INSPECTING A PRACTICAL CATHOLIC CHARITY.

WASHINGTON, *July 17.*

Residents of this city are taking a lively interest in the question of cheaper gas. At present the consideration of the appropriation bill for the District has taken up so much time that the gas question has been neglected. The action of the Senate in striking out the clause in the appropriation bill which limited the charge for gas lamps to $18 apiece and restoring it to the present rate of $21.50 is construed as unfavorable to the movement for cheaper gas. The clause of the House bill authorizing the District Commissioners to receive proposals for lighting the streets at 80 per cent of the present cost was also stricken out. It is argued that if the Government would not reduce the price of gas which it consumed it would not that of private consumers. How much truth there is in this statement will be seen when the House bill reducing the price of gas to $1 per 1,000 cubic feet comes up in the Senate for consideration. This bill passed the House on April 12, after a thorough and comprehensive examination of the gas supply of the District by a subcom-

mittee. Persons interested were given a full hearing, and, after taking testimony on both sides, the committee reported that $1 per 1,000 cubic feet would give the company an annual dividend of 10 per cent, pay 6 per cent on its outstanding bonds, and leave a surplus of $26,966.91.

The complaints against the quality of gas in the District are numerous and almost perpetual. The quality has, however, improved during the past few months. The company excuses the poor light given by the quality of the pipes, the low or high pressure, the governors, and other causes. The quality of gas is said by the Government inspector and others to be as good as any furnished in the United States. This is taking into consideration the candle power, which is required to be 16. The average is 18. Other cities require from 20 to 25 candle power. The House bill reducing the price to $1 increases the candle power to 22. The problem seems to be whether or not the gas company can reduce the price to $1 and still make a fair profit. In 1893 the gross receipts of the company were $1,135,305.60, and the expenditures, exclusive of dividends and extension of works, were $681,277,57, leaving net earnings of $454,028.03. The company paid a dividend of $200,000, being 10 per cent on its capital stock, and had a surplus of $164,528.03 out of which it spent $89,500 for extension of works. It paid 6 per cent interest on $600,000 of bonds.

The par value of the stock is $20 a share and is valued at $50. For the past five years it has always paid a clear dividend of 10 per cent, and from $89,500 to $165,629.36 has been spent yearly in extensions, besides accumulating a surplus of $280,000 undivided profits. The original capital of the company was $50,000, of which $42,500 was paid in for 2,500 shares of a par value of $20. In 1852 the capital was increased to $300,000, which was paid in cash. In 1855 the capital was increased $150,000 and the stock taken up by the stockholders. In 1866 another $500,000 was added and issued to shareholders, share for share. In 1872 the stock was increased to $1,000,000, with the privilege of increasing it another $1,000,000, which has been done. In 1887 $600,000 of 6 per cent bonds were issued; $600,000 of certificates of indebtedness have also been issued, which are convertible into stock if the stock should be increased. On the stock a dividend of 10 per cent is paid, and on the bonds and certificates 6 per cent. It is claimed that the $600,000 of certificates was a gift to the stockholders. In 1892 they paid an additional dividend of $3 a share, making 25 per cent.

The company claims it can not manufacture gas at less than $1.25 and make a fair profit, which it estimates at 10 per cent. A table showing the comparative price of gas in different cities gives in part the following figures:

New York	$1.25	Newark	$1.40
Chicago	1.13	Minneapolis	1.60
Philadelphia	1.00	Jersey City	1.75
Brooklyn	1.25	Louisville	1.29
St. Louis	1.59	Omaha	1.75
Boston	1.08	Rochester	1.25
Baltimore	1.25	St. Paul	1.70
San Francisco	2.00	Kansas City	1.60
Cincinnati	.98½	Providence	1.20
Cleveland	.80	Indianapolis	1.25
Buffalo	1.00	Allegheny	.95
Milwaukee	1.00	Washington	1.25

Chicago has made provision for $1 gas.

Cities owning and controlling their own gas works.

	Population.	Price per 1,000 feet.
Henderson, Ky	14,000	$1.00
Huntsville, Mo	2,000	2.00
Bellefontaine, Ohio	7,000	.80
Hamilton, Ohio	20,000	1.00
Philadelphia, Pa	1,200,000	1.00
Alexandria, Va	16,000	1.44
Charlottesville, Va	10,000	1.00
Danville, Va	11,000	1.25
Fredericksburg, Va	5,000	1.50
Richmond, Va	80,000	1.25
Wheeling, W. Va	40,000	.75

Price of gas in cities where the cost is $1 or less.

Boston	$1.00	Cincinnati	$1.00
Columbus	1.00	Atlanta, Ga	1.00
Dayton, Ohio	1.00	Taylorsville, Ill	1.00
Centerville	1.00	Henderson, Ky	1.00
Elyria, Ohio	1.00	Sandusky, Ohio	1.00
Troy, Ohio	1.00	Youngstown, Ohio	1.00
Greenville	1.00	Meadville, Pa	1.00
Pittsburg, Pa	1.00	Grafton, W. Va	1.00
Milwaukee, Wis	1.00	Hamilton, Ohio	1.00
Allegheny County	.95	Grand Rapids	.90
Cleveland	.80	Wheeling	.75
West Point	.60	Kokomo	.75
Bellefontaine	.80	Jackson, Mich	.50
St. Joseph	.50	Terre Haute	.50
Chicago, 1 company	.50	Lakewood, N. Y	.30

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 249.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

JULY 31, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. COCKRELL submitted the following

LETTER FROM THE ATTORNEY-GENERAL RELATIVE TO APPROPRIATION FOR PAYMENT OF JUDGMENTS OF THE COURT OF CLAIMS IN INDIAN DEPREDATION CASES.

DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE,
Washington, D. C., July 10, 1894.

SIR: Referring to the clause in the general deficiency appropriation bill making provision for the payment of judgments of the Court of Claims in Indian depredation cases, I have the honor to report that the following case was omitted from the list of such judgments transmitted to the President of the Senate and the Speaker of the House of Representatives on December 9, 1893, for the reason that there was then pending therein a motion for a new trial on behalf of the defense; this motion has since been overruled by the court and the case is therefore entitled to be reported with other similar cases for appropriation, as follows:

In whose favor rendered.	Amount claimed.	Amount of judgment.	Date of judgment.
John A. Banning	$9,600.00	$9,600.00	Nov. 13, 1893.

Respectfully,

RICHARD OLNEY,
Attorney-General.

Hon. F. M. COCKRELL,
Chairman Appropriations Committee, U. S. Senate.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 250.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 1, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. CHANDLER presented the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the special committee appointed to investigate the charges of bribery against Senators be instructed to inquire into the facts connected with the organization and history of the Dominion Coal Company, Limited, of Nova Scotia, for the purpose of ascertaining whether such company was formed or is being conducted by reason of any assurances that the tariff duty on coal shall be repealed by Congress; and if so, to ascertain who gave such assurances; and whether or not any officer of the Government or any member of Congress is or was interested in said company; and what action, if any, has been taken by any person in fulfillment of said assurances.

O

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 6, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. MILLS presented the following

AMENDMENT

To Mis. Doc. No. 250.

Strike out all after "*Resolved*," and insert:

"That a committee of five Senators be appointed to inquire into the facts connected with the organization and history of the Dominion Coal Company, Limited, of Nova Scotia, for the purpose of determining whether such company was formed, or is being conducted, by reason of any assurances that the tariff duty on coal shall be repealed by Congress, and if so, to ascertain who gave such assurances, and whether or not any officer of the Government or any member of Congress is or was interested in said company, and what action, if any, has been taken by any person in fulfillment of said assurances.

"And said committee is also directed to investigate and report to the Senate whether or not any officer of the Government or any member of Congress is or was interested in any corporation or company which is engaged in mining coal in any of the States or Territories of the United States, or in any railroad company which is engaged in transporting coal which would come into competition with Nova Scotia or Dominion coal in any of the markets of the United States, and whether influence has been used by any of said coal or railroad companies to maintain a tariff tax on coal for their benefit; and also to report to the Senate whether the removal of the duty on coal would reduce its price to consumers of coal in any part of the United States, and if so, what part of the United States would be so benefited."

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 251.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 2, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Education and Labor and ordered to be printed.

Mr. PEFFER presented the following

PETITION OF THE UNEMPLOYED, AND BILL.

CAMP ROSSLYN,
Alexandria County, Va., August 1, 1894.

To the honorable U. S. Senators and Representatives in Congress assembled:

The United States Industrial Army is composed of many thousands of unemployed American citizens, and represents, by general consent, millions of unemployed or partly employed and underpaid workingmen. They have naught but their ability to labor to provide for themselves and families, and the average wealth possessed by them would not purchase a decent coffin.

A portion of this army is now encamped near Washington, thousands more are on the way and thousands now languish in jail who from hunger were driven to trespass on railroad property. For years they have peacefully and hopefully awaited for private and public enterprise to give them work, and their condition is now such that their loyalty to the laws of the land is being put to a very severe test, as witness the violent outbreaks that are becoming so alarmingly frequent and are so ominous of catastrophe to the nation. Political liberty is a mockery where economic slavery exists.

This army is organized in the interests of peace and, apart from the borrowing of transportation in an emergency, it has been, and will continue to be, law abiding, half starved and ragged as it is, thus showing to the world an example of patient endurance and determination that is unparalleled in history.

Had we had the time and facilities we could have brought a ton's weight of petitions from the poverty-stricken masses.

They ask for immediate employment on public works at fair wages or else national assistance to supply their own wants by cooperative industry.

To have our leading industries nationalized and the product or service to be furnished at cost.

Free coinage of silver and a legal-tender currency issued direct to the people.

To have the immigration of foreign laborers stopped until there is a demand for their labor or until the serfdom of the wage-earner is abolished.

Therefore, as the hour of adjournment approaches and our needs are urgent, we, the undersigned, at the request of the army and the millions it represents, do respectfully petition your honorable body to pass the bill hereunto attached, or failing that, to pass some measure of immediate and temporary relief.

LEWIS C. FRY,
Los Angeles, Cal.
ARTHUR VINETTE,
Los Angeles, Cal.
THOS. GALVIN,
Los Angeles, Cal.
FRANK CANTWELL,
Seattle, Wash.
CHAS. T. KELLEY,
San Francisco, Cal.
GEO. HOWARD,
San Francisco, Cal.
S. H. THOMAS,
Cincinnati, Ohio.
CHAS. CLARK,
Minneapolis, Minn.
ALLEN JENNINGS,
Indianapolis, Ind.
Advisory Board U. S. Industrial Army.

A BILL to provide work for unemployed American citizens.

PREAMBLE.

Whereas the lack of employment for a vast number of workingmen and the scant returns obtained from self-employment produces a great amount of distress and suffering and leads to demoralization and crime; and

Whereas these terrible conditions have appealed to the sympathy of all who desire the peace, prosperity, and perpetuity of the Republic; and

Whereas the Constitution makes ample provision for the promotion of the general welfare: Therefore,

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the Secretary of War is hereby authorized to inaugurate a system of public improvements for the creation of substantial wealth for the nation, and for the purpose of giving work to the unemployed citizens of the United States.

SEC. 2. That all citizens of the United States, by applying on the grounds where the operations are carried on, and by presenting evidence of citizenship and continuous lack of employment for thirty days, all of which being certified to by a county clerk, shall be furnished with work by the day according to their physical abilities and within a period of one week from date of application.

SEC. 3. That the minimum wages to be paid shall be two dollars per day of eight hours, and skilled labor shall be paid according to the average rate of wages prevailing in the neighborhood of the works.

SEC. 4. That the Secretary of the Treasury shall, immediately after the passage of this bill, have engraved and printed two hundred and fifty million dollars of Treasury notes in denominations of one, two, five, ten, and twenty dollars. Such notes shall be legal tender for all debts, public and private, and for customs duties. He shall also hereafter issue of these notes annually a sufficient amount to meet the requirements of this bill.

SEC. 5. That inasmuch as a number of public works are already laid out and waiting appropriations, this bill shall go into effect immediately.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 252.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 2, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Private Land Claims and ordered to be printed.

Mr. PASCO presented the following:

REPORT OF COMMITTEE APPOINTED BY ST. AUGUSTINE BOARD OF TRADE TO INVESTIGATE THE REASONS FOR THE DELAY IN THE SETTLEMENT OF THE TITLE TO ANASTASIA ISLAND, STATE OF FLORIDA, SUBMITTED JUNE 22, 1894.

The ST. AUGUSTINE BOARD OF TRADE:

GENTLEMEN: The committee beg leave to make the following report:

Anastasia Island, or so much of it as was not considered too marshy, was surveyed in 1835 and 1836, the amount of land surveyed being about 6,600 acres. It lies in townships 7, 8, and 9, range 30 east. In township 7 there were surveyed as private lands two small Spanish grants, one made to F. X. Sanchez by Governor White in 1802, and the other to Lorenzo Rodriguez by Governor Quesada in 1793 (American State Papers, vol. 4, p. 214, and vol. 5, p. 420, Duff Green's edition). These two grants being within the jurisdiction of the commissioners appointed by Congress to settle the private land claims in Florida, were presented by the claimants and confirmed as valid Spanish grants.

By this survey, under the authority of the United States, the lands covered by these private claims were segregated from the public lands, and the residue of the lands on Anastasia Island were surveyed and platted as public lands of the United States.

In 1839 all the lands on Anastasia Island which had been surveyed and platted as public lands were offered at public sale, and no bids having been received for any of them they were from that date subject to private entry under the general land laws, and such of them as were not selected by the State of Florida under the swamp act remained subject to private entry until June, 1866, when Congress enacted that lands in Florida and some other States should be disposed of only under the homestead laws. (*See* section 2303, R. S.)

HOMESTEAD ENTRIES MADE.

A considerable number of homestead entries were made on this island prior to 1870, when in July of that year Mr. C. M. Furman, of Charleston, filed a letter with the Commissioner of the Land Office, claiming to be the owner of Anastasia Island, under a Spanish grant, and requesting that no grant or patent be issued to the State of Florida, or any other party, giving title to said island or any part thereof.

make homestead entries on the island. Their applications were al rejected on the authority of a letter from the Commissioner of the Lan Office, dated October 12, 1882, that the lands were all embraced in th Furman claim, which had not yet been adjusted. Thus, for eighte more years after the protest of Mr. Furman, no progress had been mad toward a settlement of title to this tract of land so close to the city o St. Augustine.

From the rejection of their applications to enter these lands and als from the rejection of certain indemnity selections, there were appeal taken to the Commissioner of the Land Office, and in accordance wit the usual practice the matter would have been speedily determined.

AN UNUSUAL TRANSACTION.

Soon after this appeal was presented, there occurred a transactio which has already greatly delayed any termination of this matter vitally important to the city of St. Augustine, and which, having be repeated, bids fair to prevent any settlement of the titles to the lan of this island for many years to come. Reference is made to the actio of the Senate Committee on Private Land Claims, which, early in th Fifty-second Congress, introduced and had passed by the Senate a res lution as follows:

Resolved, That the Secretary of the Interior be, and is hereby, requested to su pend all further action in respect to admitting land claims under the laws of t United States on the Island of Anastasia, Florida, during the present session Congress, and until the expiration of the next session of Congress, unless Co gressional action on the subject shall have been taken meantime.

By whose influence this unusual interference with the ordina course of proceedings in land matters was brought about it is n necessary to inquire. Certainly the homesteaders and indemnity sele ors would not desire to delay a termination of the matter of the tit for, as in the case of some of the homesteaders, they were living up their selections in the hopes of getting title. Inasmuch as the Co missioner of the Land Office, on the 2d day of August, 1890, had re dered his decision that the lands were public lands, and the matt

selected by the State as swamp land and patents issued therefor. Two private land claims have been located by survey on this land. These private land claims are still pending before this office unpatented. (This is the property owned by the South Beach Railway and platted into town lots. The Rodriguez grant has since been patented.)

Nearly fifty applications to acquire title to lands on this island are found on file here, having been forwarded to this office on appeal. C. M. Furman, of Greenville, S. C., claims as one of the legal representatives of said Fish, and as such protests against the disposal of the lands on said island under the public land laws.

If this land is private land belonging to the Fish representatives, then your (the registrar's and receiver's) rejection of said applications to enter the same as public lands should be sustained; if not, your action in the matter should be overruled.

The evidence upon which this Fish claim rests will be found printed in the American State Papers, vol. 4, pp. 283 to 300 and 465 to 471. Congress, in acting on the reports of the commissioners confirming those claims, recommended whose area was under 3,500 acres. (*See* act of February 8, 1827.) By act of Congress of May 23, 1828, those having an area greater than 3,500 acres were confirmed to the extent of a league square, provided the claimant released the excess.

AREA OF THE ISLAND.

This island contains upward of 6,661 acres, as some of the marsh lands have not yet been surveyed. (As a matter of fact there are nearly 1,000 acres of unsurveyed land.) A league square is 4,438.68 acres. Those representing the Fish claim have never released this excess, either under the second section of the act of May 26, 1830, which only allowed them one year from the date to make such release, or have they secured a confirmation in any other manner. It appears that, subsequent to the date when it is alleged that said island was granted to Fish, a portion of the lands comprising this island was granted to F. X. Sanchez.

The United States extended the public surveys over this island in 1834. The Supreme Court of the United States held in the case of Bottiller *v.* Dominguez, 130 U. S., 238, that claims derived from the Spanish and Mexican governments had no validity until they had been presented and confirmed as required by the laws of this country. The Fish claim has been presented, but the claimants have failed to comply with the conditions imposed by Congress, that is, release all lands claimed in excess of a league square; consequently the same has never been confirmed and has no validity before the Land Department of this Government.

This ruling does away with your objection to allowing the various applicants to locate said lands as vacant public lands belonging to the United States.

Upon the rendition of this opinion the Gainesville land office was directed to proceed to allow the entries and selections in accordance with the practice of the Department, but, as before stated, the heirs of Fish took an appeal to the Secretary of the Interior. This they had a right to do, and the people of St. Augustine could not complain, however much they might desire that a speedy settlement of the title might be made.

DECLARED PUBLIC LANDS.

The resolution reported by the Private Lands Committee, and passed by the Fifty-second Congress, delayed any decision by the Secretary until June 22, 1893, that is, three years after the Commissioner's decision was rendered. The Secretary affirmed the decision of the Commissioner that the lands were public lands of the United States, and directed that they be disposed of accordingly.

On August 28, 1893, the Commissioner wrote the Gainesville land office as follows:

In the matter of the private claim of Jesse Fish, involving title to Anastasia Island, the honorable Secretary of the Interior, under date of June 22, 1893, affirmed the decision of this office of August 2, 1890, holding that said claim had no validity. As no motion for a review has been filed in this case, the applications and appeals herein named of parties to enter tracts on said island, under the land laws of the United States, are herewith returned to your office that they may be made of record, and acted upon on their merits according to their priority, and all conflicts settled in the usual manner.

For some reason the register and receiver failed to carry out the instructions sent them, the alleged reason being that they had not had time to settle the conflicts. Before they could be induced to take any action the Senate of the United States again intervened with a resolution, similar to that introduced in the Fifty-second Congress, and has tied the matter up for the present, and unless some action is taken to have the Senate withdraw its resolution, or to have the Secretary proceed regardless of it, there is no knowing whether the title to the island will ever be settled.

APPEAL TO CONGRESS FOR HELP.

What the influence is that can secure from the private land committees, of which one of the Florida Senators is a member, action so unusual and so hostile to the best interests of this community, it is hard to conjecture.

We therefore recommend that the Board of Trade of St. Augustine ask the Florida Senators and Members of Congress to use their best endeavors to secure a speedy settlement of the title to Anastasia Island, and as the first step to ask that the Senate will reconsider its resolution of January 10, 1894, requesting the Secretary of the Interior to take no action in the matter of land claims on Anastasia Island, and in case the Senate shall fail to rescind such resolution, ask the Secretary of the Interior to proceed in said matter in accordance with law.

We further recommend that the Florida delegation in Congress urge upon the honorable Secretary of War the early occupancy of the lands reserved for a military post on Anastasia Island, and that they pledge their support to aid in securing the passage of the necessary legislation by Congress for the building of suitable barracks and the mounting of practice guns on the island.

JOHN T. DISMUKES,
J. A. MCGUIRE,
W. W. DEWHURST,
Committee.

The following resolutions were unanimously adopted at regular meeting of Board of Trade of city of St. Augustine, held June 22, 1894:

Resolved, That the board requests the Florida delegation in Congress to secure the reconsideration by the Senate of the United States of its resolution of January 10, 1894, requesting the honorable Secretary of the Interior to take no action in the matter of land claims on Anastasia Island until the expiration of the Fifty-third Congress, and that we urge upon said delegation that they do all in their power to have said claims speedily settled.

Resolved, That it is the desire and expectation of this board that our Senators and Representatives in Congress use their best endeavors to secure the passage of the necessary legislation by Congress for the immediate occupancy of the Anastasia Island reservation as a military post and artillery practice grounds.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 253.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 2, 1894.—Ordered to be printed with H. R. 5246 and substitute.

Mr. HILL, from the Committee on Immigration, presented the following

LETTERS FROM THE SECRETARY OF STATE AND THE SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY RELATIVE TO H. R. 5246, AN ACT PROVIDING FOR THE INSPECTION OF IMMIGRANTS BY U. S. CONSULS.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, August 2, 1894.

DEAR SIR: I have your letter of the 27th ultimo, requesting the opinion of the State Department upon the merits of a bill (H. R. 5246) which passed the House of Representatives and is now before the Senate Immigration Committee, a copy of which you inclosed.

Since receiving your letter I have not been able to give much thought to the subject, but I can see practical objections to the measure. Should it become a law and our consular officers be increased tenfold they could not perform in an intelligent and satisfactory way the duties imposed upon them. It is contemplated that the immigrant shall obtain from the consul nearest the place of his last residence a certificate setting forth that the officer has made an investigation concerning the immigrant, and that he does not belong to any class excluded from admission into the United States under the act of 1891, or by any other statute. What kind of an "investigation" is contemplated? Clearly, our consuls could not be authorized to require witnesses to appear before them, and their investigations would necessarily be of little practical value. In brief, I do not believe the State Department could execute so much of the proposed statute as would devolve upon that Department with the present consular force, or with that force very largely increased.

Very respectfully,

W. Q. GRESHAM.

Hon. DAVID B. HILL,
U. S. Senate.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
OFFICE OF THE SECRETARY,
Washington, D. C., August 1, 1894.

SIR: Your valued favor of the 27th ultimo, in which you request the opinion of my Department as to whether H. R. 5246, an act providing for the inspection of immigrants by U. S. consuls, is deemed a merito-

rious or objectionable measure, and any facts bearing upon the propriety of the proposed legislation, received.

In reply will say that I presume the object of the bill is to restrict immigration and to compel inspection abroad before the intended immigrant has undertaken the journey to the port of embarkation, in order that only desirable immigrants should be permitted to obtain transportation. In this I heartily concur, and the only subject I desire to present for your consideration is as to the best mode of accomplishing this end. The recent act of March 3, 1893, under which this Department is now acting, has a similar object in view. It has been in operation only a short time and the results obtained have been highly satisfactory. It is daily becoming more useful and efficacious, and should not, in my opinion, be hampered by a dual administration of our laws by separate Departments of the Government, acting through their different agencies, resulting in a divided responsibility which would tend to a lax administration of the law.

On October 22, 1892, a commission, consisting of Hon. John B. Weber, chairman; Judson N. Cross, Walter Kempster, Joseph Powderly, and Hermann J. Schulties, was appointed by Secretary Charles Foster, charged, among other things, with an investigation as to the policy of adopting a system of preliminary inspection of immigrants before embarkation, and to recommend the best mode of providing for same. The commission made its report, which is exhaustive, and contains valuable information on the subject embraced in this bill, from which report it appears that the system of consular inspection was not considered with favor, but the system of inspection which cast the responsibility upon the transportation companies of bringing undesirable immigrants to this country, under certain pains and penalties, was recommended and approved. Upon this theory the act of 1893 was passed, and I see no reason at present for departing from its policy.

From the report of the commission above referred to I am enabled to formulate briefly the following objections to the proposed legislation:

(1) Its enactment would probably lead to international complications.

(2) It confers duties upon consuls not recognized by international law and *ultra vires*.

(3) It provides a dual administration of the immigration laws by the State and Treasury Departments.

(4) Its operation, it is feared, will result in securing a lower class of immigrants, and will prove a hindrance to able-bodied men who desire to migrate.

(5) United States consuls are few in number, and are located principally at the ports of foreign countries.

The intended immigrant would have to travel many miles in most cases to see the consul nearest his residence, and if granted a certificate would reach this country in an impoverished condition. The consul would have to rely upon his statements, or go himself, or write to foreign officials for information. If the government or municipal authorities desired to be rid of him they could easily do so. No difficulties would be encountered by the young or old, the criminal or the pauper, but the bone and sinew of the country would be discouraged or held for military service.

To make inspection satisfactory the consuls would have to be equipped with clerks, interpreters, inspectors, entailing considerable expense, who would probably be refused permission to perform their duties on foreign soil. The Dominion of Canada refused to recognize our inspectors as Government officials within its country, and this Department

refused to recognize an Italian official at Ellis Island. It would remove from the transportation companies the responsibility cast upon them by the act of 1893 of bringing such immigrants as are prohibited a landing in the United States, as an immigrant having a consular certificate would be entitled to passage upon payment of his fare.

It is not deemed advisable by this Department to change the system inaugurated by the act of 1893. Since it went into operation most beneficial results have been obtained. The law has been faithfully executed, and is far-reaching in its results. The obligation cast upon the steamship companies, in view of the increased number rejected by the present rigid inspection, has compelled them to exercise a careful foreign inspection, and to require their subagents to sell tickets only to such immigrants as are likely to be admitted upon the penalty of having the cost of deportation deducted from their commissions. When it is considered that these numerous agents are located in the various towns and villages of Europe, being personally acquainted, in most instances, with the intended immigrant, his family and surroundings, it can readily be seen that no tickets would be knowingly sold to any of the prohibited classes, and it is not surprising that a better class of immigrants are now arriving than formerly. There are now practically three inspections of immigrants, one by the agent at the immigrant's home, one by the master and surgeon of the vessel under oath, and one at the port of arrival in this country.

I am informed that depots are now being established upon the Russian frontiers by certain steamship lines for the inspection of immigrants destined to the United States, in order to prevent the entry into Germany of indigent persons who would be refused a landing in the United States, and thus become a burden upon that Government.

The present law is becoming more and more remedial as its provisions are better understood, but can be improved by such amendments as practical experience demonstrates; and at this time I call your attention to the alarming spread of anarchists in this and foreign countries. Most vigorous laws are being enacted by other governments for the suppression of this evil, and the punishment of the offenders, either by incarceration or banishment. Our country seems to be the place where such evil-disposed persons find a refuge, which is attended by menace to our institutions, and danger to our people. In view of this, and to amend to some extent our present immigration laws, I have ventured to suggest some legislation, herewith inclosed, after such amendment as your honorable committee may see proper. This amendment will, in my opinion, accomplish the same purposes intended by the consular-inspection bill. It will further restrict emigration, and none but the most desirable classes can obtain transportation to this country.

The immigrants arriving at the port of New York for the last three years, and those debarred, were as follows:

Year.	Total number admitted.	Number debarred and returned and admitted on bond.								
		Idiots.	Insane.	Paupers.	Diseased.	Convicts.	Contract laborers.	Returned within one year as public charges.	Total.	Bonded.
1892	445,987	4	15	780	72	26	832	508	2,235	2,011
1893	343,452	3	6	265	69	12	458	428	1,242	5
1894	218,046	.....	3	561	2	6	1,444	285	2,307	69

The above shows a great reduction, and also an efficient execution of the law.

The Department has no means of ascertaining the number of immigrants who have been refused passage to this country, but from unofficial sources it is informed the number is quite large. From the same sources we learn that the number of aliens leaving the United States at present about equals the number arriving, and this condition of things has existed for the past six months.

Respectfully, yours,

J. G. CARLISLE,
Secretary.

Hon. DAVID B. HILL,
Chairman Senate Committee on Immigration.

AN ACT Providing for the inspection of immigrants by United States consuls.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That no alien immigrant shall be admitted within the United States unless he or she shall exhibit to the United States inspectors of arriving immigrants at the place of admission a certificate signed by the United States consul or other authorized representative of the United States at the place nearest where said immigrant last resided, setting forth that the said consul or other United States representative has made an investigation concerning said immigrant and that said immigrant does not belong to the class or classes of alien immigrants excluded from admission into the United States under the provisions of the Act of Congress approved March third, eighteen hundred and ninety-one, entitled "An Act in amendment to the various Acts relative to immigration and the importation of aliens under contract or agreement to perform labor, its amendments or supplements," or by any other law of the United States that now exists or may hereafter be passed. Said immigrants shall, in addition, conform to all present requirements of law.

It shall be the duty of United States consuls and United States representatives in other countries to investigate and grant or withhold certificates, as shall be disclosed on investigation under the directions and instructions of the State Department, according to the laws of the United States as aforesaid.

SEC. 2. That this Act shall take effect from and after the first day of January, anno Domini eighteen hundred and ninety-five.

Passed the House of Representatives July 20, 1894.

Attest: JAMES KERR,
Clerk.

AN ACT providing for the inspection of immigrants by United States consuls.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That no alien anarchist shall hereafter be permitted to land at any port of the United States, or be admitted into the United States, but this shall not be so construed as to apply to political refugees or political offenders.

SEC. 2. That at the hearing of aliens charged with being anarchists the board of special inquiry shall diligently inquire of the accused, by pertinent questions, as to his antecedents, political opinions, whether he belongs to any society or association of known anarchistic tendencies, and he may examine the person for marks indicative of such membership; he may accept evidence of the immigrant's common reputation as an anarchist, and the orders, degrees, or judgments of foreign governments and police notifications as prima facie evidence, which shall be sufficient, unless successfully controverted, to sustain an order of deportation. The Secretary of the Treasury is hereby authorized, in case he shall be satisfied that an alien has been allowed to land, or has come into the United States, contrary to the immigration laws, to issue a warrant and cause such alien to be taken into custody and returned to the country whence he came, at the expense of the importing vessel, or if he entered from an adjoining country, of which he is not a citizen, then to the country of his nativity, at the expense of the United States. In such cases the Secretary may authorize any immigration official to summon witnesses, administer oaths, and take testimony, to be submitted to him, and inspectors of immigration may execute such process and make arrests and convey to port of departure all such persons ordered deported.

SEC. 3. That in cases where, upon the trial and conviction of any foreign-born and unnaturalized person of any crime or misdemeanor in any United States court, or court of record of any State or Territory or the District of Columbia, the presiding judge shall certify that from the evidence produced at the trial he is satisfied that such alien is an anarchist, or that he is not attached to the principles of the Constitution of the United States and well disposed to the peace and good order of the same, and that his remaining in this country will be a menace to the Government, or to the peace and well being of society in general, such convict, in addition to other punishments adjudged, shall be taken before a commissioner of immigration, at a port of entry, who shall order his deportation, at the expense of the United States, to the country from which he came. Should he return to the United States he shall be arrested and sentenced to confinement in the penitentiary for a period not exceeding four years and afterwards again deported.

SEC. 4. That the Secretary of the Treasury shall appoint at such foreign porst of departure as he may deem necessary an immigrant inspector, at a salary not exceeding two thousand five hundred dollars per annum, whose duty it shall be, under such rules and regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may from time to time prescribe, to inspect passengers embarking for the United States; he shall have power to erase from the list or manifest of passengers required by section one of the Act of eighteen hundred and ninety-three the name of any immigrant who he is satisfied should not be permitted to land in this country, and may forbid the transportation of any person belonging to the excluded classes in the first or second cabin or in any part of any vessel; he shall transmit a written report of his proceedings, and give information as to all suspected persons whose landing in the United States should be specially investigated, with the reasons therefor, and shall warn and admonish the master or the officer in command of the departing vessel as to the character of any intended immigrant if objectionable or undesirable. This report shall be signed by the inspector and delivered by him, inclosed under seal, to the master or officer in command of the vessel, who shall deliver the same to the immigration officer at the port of arrival, in the same manner as said manifests or lists of alien immigrants are required to be delivered, under a penalty of five hundred dollars in case of failure of said master or officer in command so to do; and should the master or officer in command of said vessel embark any objectionable or undesirable immigrant, after notice of said inspector not to do so, he shall pay a penalty of one hundred dollars in each case, which shall be paid within twenty-four hours after arrival and be a lien on the vessel bringing said passenger. Said inspectors shall also diligently inquire and inform themselves as to the character of intended immigrants, whether criminals, anarchists, insane, paupers, or diseased persons, availing themselves of police records, decrees of expulsion, and any and every source of information useful and obtainable, so as to enable them to arrive at correct conclusions, and shall execute such other duties as the Secretary of the Treasury may impose. And for the purpose of enforcing this law and paying the salaries of these inspectors the sum of sixty thousand dollars is hereby appropriated.

SEC. 5. That the fact that an immigrant has declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States shall constitute no bar to proceedings against him under this Act or under the Acts to which it is an amendment.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 254.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 3, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. ALLEN presented the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on Finance be, and the same is hereby, discharged from the further consideration of the bill (S. 2264) for the relief of the several States of the Union, and for other purposes, and that said bill be placed on the Calendar for present consideration by the Senate.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 255.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 3, 1894.—Placed on the Calendar and ordered to be printed.

Mr. MCLAURIN, from the Committee on Claims, presented the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the claim of Eliza H. Gerger and Mary Virginia Roulins, daughters and only heirs at law of H. E. Sizer, deceased, late of Jackson, State of Mississippi, represented by Senate bill numbered fourteen hundred and six, with all the papers relating thereto, be, and the same is hereby, referred to the Court of Claims to find the facts, proceeding under existing laws, whether, barring all statutes of limitation, the said claim mentioned in the said Senate bill, or any part thereof, and, if so, what part, is, under the laws of the United States, a valid and subsisting claim against the United States.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 256.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 6, 1894.—Ordered to lie on the table.

Mr. MILLS presented the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That in the revision of the existing system of national taxation the following principles should be observed:

First. That all taxes are burdens upon the taxpayers, and can only be rightfully imposed to raise revenue to support the Government.

Second. When taxes are imposed on imported goods the rates should be so low as not materially to restrict the importation of the articles upon which the taxes are imposed.

Third. In selecting the articles to be taxed only those ready for consumption should be chosen, and all articles imported for manufacture or remanufacture should be exempt from duty.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 257.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 7, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

MR. GRAY presented the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on Printing be instructed to consider and report as to the advisability of having Government printing and binding done under the contract system by private concerns, and to inquire as to the difference in cost between private and public work of the same class.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 258.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 6, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. POWER, from the Committee on Public Lands, presented the following

REPORT FROM THE COMMISSIONERS OF THE GENERAL LAND OFFICE OF SENATE BILL No. 434 (H. R. 3476), ENTITLED "AN ACT TO PROVIDE FOR THE EXAMINATION AND CLASSIFICATION OF CERTAIN MINERAL LANDS IN THE STATES OF MONTANA AND IDAHO."

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
Washington, July 31, 1894.

SIR: I transmit herewith report from the Commissioner of the General Land Office of Senate bill No. 434, entitled "A bill to provide for the examination and classification of certain mineral lands in the States of Montana and Idaho," with the inclosures therein referred to.

The Commissioner in his report answers fully all the questions submitted in your letter of the 20th instant to the Department, and I concur in the conclusion therein reached without making further report thereon.

Very respectfully,

HOKE SMITH,
Secretary.

Hon. SAMUEL PASCO,
Acting Chairman Committee on Public Lands, U. S. Senate.

[H. R. 3476, Fifty-third Congress, second session.]

AN ACT to provide for the examination and classification of certain mineral lands in the States of Montana and Idaho.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the Secretary of the Interior be, and is hereby, authorized and directed, as speedily as practicable, to cause all lands in the States of Montana and Idaho within the land grant and indemnity land grant limits of the Northern Pacific Railroad Company, as defined by an Act of Congress entitled "An Act granting lands to aid in the construction of a railroad and telegraph line from Lake Superior to Puget Sound, on the Pacific coast, by the northern route," approved July second, eighteen hundred and sixty-four, and Acts supplemental to and amendatory thereof, to be examined and classified by commissioners to be appointed as hereinafter provided, with special reference to the mineral or nonmineral character of such lands, and to reject, cancel, and disallow any and all claims or filings heretofore made, or which may hereafter be made, by or on behalf of the said Northern Pacific Railroad Company on any lands in said States which upon examination shall be classified as provided in this Act as mineral lands.

SEC. 2. That for the purpose of making the examination herein provided for there shall be appointed by the President of the United States, as soon as practicable after the passage of this Act, three commissioners for each of the following land districts, to wit: The Bozeman, Helena, and Missoula land districts, in the State of Montana, and the Cœur d'Alene land district, in the State of Idaho, at least one of whom for each district shall be a practicable miner and a resident of such district; and said persons so appointed for each district shall constitute a board of commissioners to perform within such district the duties herein prescribed. They shall each receive for their compensation ten dollars for each day they may be actually engaged in the performance of their duties, which shall include their transportation and subsistence expenses; and their accounts shall be audited by the Secretary of the Interior and paid monthly. Before entering upon their duties each of said commissioners shall take an oath to faithfully perform the duties of his office. Said commissioners shall make examination of the lands herein mentioned within their respective districts, and may also take the testimony of witnesses as to the mineral or nonmineral character of any of said lands, and receive any other evidence relating to said matter, and shall have power to summon witnesses to appear before them, and to administer oaths; and they shall, immediately upon their appointment, proceed to examine and classify the lands herein mentioned within their respective districts, as provided in this Act. The oath of office of said commissioners shall be filed by them in the office of the Commissioner of the General Land Office. All testimony taken by said commissioners shall be reduced to writing, subscribed by the witnesses, and filed with the report of the commissioners hereinafter required. The action or decision of a majority of said commissioners in each district shall control in all matters herein provided for. Not more than two of the commissioners in any one district shall be appointed from the same political party.

SEC. 3. That all lands shall be classified and taken to be mineral lands under this Act which prior to the passage of this Act have been located or patented as mineral lands, or which have, or probably will have, a market value by reason of the minerals which they contain, or which show such indications of valuable mineral deposits as would induce a miner to spend his time or money upon them with the reasonable expectation of finding minerals in paying quantities; or which from their geological formation, or their situation or propinquity or relation to known mineral lands, are or probably will be valuable for the mineral therein; and all of these matters shall be considered by the commissioners in determining the mineral or nonmineral character of such lands and in classifying the same. The classification herein provided for shall be by sections where the lands have been surveyed, unless there are such differences in the situation or character of different parts of the same section as in the opinion of the commissioners to require its classification by legal subdivisions. If the lands examined are not surveyed, classification shall be made by tracts of such extent, and designated by such natural or artificial boundaries to identify them, as the commissioners may determine. Where mining locations have been heretofore made or patents issued for mining ground in any section of land, this shall be taken as prima facie evidence that the forty-acre subdivision within which it is located is mineral land: *Provided*, That the word "mineral," where it occurs in this Act, shall not be held to include iron or coal: *And provided further*, That the examination and classification of lands hereby authorized shall be made without reference or regard to any previous examination or report or classification thereof.

SEC. 4. That such of the lands herein mentioned as have been surveyed prior to the passage of this Act shall be first examined and classified as herein provided, and afterwards, and as speedily as practicable, the lands herein mentioned which have not been surveyed, until all the lands herein mentioned shall have been examined and classified, as herein provided.

SEC. 5. That said commissioners shall, on or before the fifth day of each month, file in the office of the register and receiver of the land office of the land district in which the land examined and classified is situated, a full report, in duplicate, in such form as the Secretary of the Interior may prescribe, showing all lands examined by them during the preceding month, and specifying clearly, by legal subdivisions, where the land is surveyed, or otherwise by natural objects or permanent monuments, to identify the same, the lands classified by them as mineral lands and those classified as nonmineral; and with said report shall be filed all testimony taken and written communications received by said commissioners relating to the lands embraced in the report. The register and receiver shall file one duplicate of said report in their office, together with all accompanying testimony and papers, and the other duplicate shall be by them forwarded direct to the Secretary of the Interior, and said commissioners shall furnish to the Secretary of the Interior at any time such further or additional report or information as he may require concerning any matters relating to their duties or the performance of the same. Upon receipt of such report the register of the land office shall, at the expense of the United States, cause to

be published in a newspaper of general circulation in the county in which the land is located, at least once a week for four consecutive weeks, notice of the classification of lands as shown by said report, and any person, corporation, or company feeling aggrieved by such classification may, at any time within sixty days after the first publication of said notice, file with the register and receiver of the land office a verified protest against the acceptance of said classification, which protest shall set forth in concise language, the grounds of objection to the classification as to the particular land in said protest described, whereupon a hearing shall be ordered by, and conducted before, the said register and receiver, under rules and regulations as near as practicable in conformity with the rules and practice of such land office in contests involving the mineral or nonmineral character of land in other cases; and an appeal from the decision of the register and receiver shall be allowed to the Commissioner of the General Land Office and the Secretary of the Interior, under such rules and regulations as the Secretary of the Interior may prescribe: *Provided*, That at such hearings the United States district attorney or his assistants for the judicial district in which the land is situated shall appear and defend the interests of the United States, and for such service he shall receive compensation not exceeding fifteen dollars per day for each day's actual service before the register and receiver, to be paid out of the fund provided for the examination and classification of said mineral lands.

SEC. 6. That as to the lands against the classification whereof no protest shall have been filed as hereinbefore provided, the classification, when approved by the Secretary of the Interior, shall be considered final, except in case of fraud, and all plats and records of the local and general land offices shall be made to conform to such classification, and as to the lands against the classification whereof protests may be filed, the final ruling made after the day set for hearing shall determine the proper classification, and all records of the local and general land offices shall be made to conform to the classification as determined by such final ruling, and all costs of such hearings shall be paid by the unsuccessful party, under such rules as the Secretary of the Interior may prescribe; and the Secretary of the Interior is hereby authorized to establish such rules and regulations as may be necessary to carry into effect the true intent and provisions of this Act as speedily as practicable.

SEC. 7. That no patent or other evidence of title shall be issued or delivered to said Northern Pacific Railroad Company for any land in said States until the examination and classification provided for in this Act shall have been made, and such patent or other evidence of title shall only issue then to such land, if any, in said States as said company may be, by law and compliance therewith and by the said classification, entitled to, and any patent, certificate, or record of selection, or other evidence of title or right to possession of any land in said States, issued, entered, or delivered to said Northern Pacific Railroad Company in violation of the provisions of this Act shall be void: *Provided*, That nothing contained in this Act shall be taken or construed as recognizing or confirming any grant of land or the right to any land in the said Northern Pacific Railroad Company, or as waiving or in anywise affecting any right on the part of the United States against the said Northern Pacific Railroad Company to claim a forfeiture of any land grant heretofore made to said company.

SEC. 8. That there is hereby appropriated, out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, the sum of twenty thousand dollars, or so much thereof as may be necessary, to be expended to carry into effect the provisions of this Act, the same to be paid out upon the order of the Secretary of the Interior.

Passed the House of Representatives July 24, 1894.

Attest:

JAMES KERR,
Clerk.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
GENERAL LAND OFFICE,
Washington, D. C., July 30, 1894.

SIR: I have the honor to acknowledge the receipt, by reference from the Department, for report in duplicate and return of papers of a communication from Hon. Samuel Pasco, acting chairman of the Senate Committee on Public Lands, transmitting "for another or supplemental report" Senate bill No. 434, entitled, "A bill to provide for the examination and classification of certain mineral lands in the States of Montana and Idaho."

The bill provides for the appointment of three commissioners for each of the following land districts: Bozeman, Helena, and Missoula, in the State of Montana, and Coeur d'Alene, in the State of Idaho, to examine and classify lands, as to their mineral or nonmineral character, within the land grant and indemnity limits of the Northern Pacific Railroad, as defined by an act of Congress entitled, "An act granting lands to aid in the construction of a railroad," etc., approved July 2, 1864 (13 Stats., 365; also 16 Stats., 378).

August 29, 1893, I had the honor to submit to the Department a report, in duplicate, on this bill recommending, subject to some modifications therein indicated, its enactment. Since said report, the decision of the Supreme Court in the Barden case, hereinafter cited, has been rendered to the effect that the Department has sufficient authority, without further legislation, to make all needful rules and regulations to classify public lands embraced within all grants in which there is a reservation of mineral.

The communication of the honorable acting chairman of the Public Lands Committee makes reference to the great necessity that exists for some action on the part of the Government in this matter, which shall include *all* of the mineral-land States, and raises the question "whether any legislation is necessary, and if the matter can not be adjusted by regulations of the Interior Department."

I submit herewith a copy of my report of August 29, 1893, and at the same time embody my present views in answer to the questions above referred to.

The estimated number of acres in the grants to the Pacific railroads in the mineral-land States and Territories, and the number of acres patented to each, is shown in the following table:

Pacific Railroad in mineral-land States.	Estimated area in grant.	Area patented.
Atlantic and Pacific:		
Arizona	10,240,000	373,099.38
California	8,384,000	.....
New Mexico	11,520,000	335,424.09
Central Pacific:		
Nevada	7,997,600	420,483.92
Utah		404,392.98
California		489,042.78
C. & O., California	3,724,800	1,790,260.90
W. P., California	1,100,000	450,297.43
O. & C., Oregon	3,840,000	1,668,045.01
Northern Pacific:		
Dakota	11,520,000	2,675,760.41
Montana	17,838,080	.....
Idaho	1,900,800	.....
Oregon	3,575,680	422.75
Washington	11,258,880	716,172.36
Southern Pacific:		
California	11,964,160	*2,228,604.85 †368,065.90
Union Pacific:		
Colorado	700,000	640.00
Denver Pacific, Colorado	100,000	209,349.25
Wyoming	4,600,000	79,682.03
Utah	1,100,000	40,196.49
Total	112,364,000	12,242,960.55

* Main. † Branch.

It has been estimated by the best authority obtainable that one-third of the lands within the railroad grants in the 12 mineral States and Territories is mineral land. Accepting the above estimate as a basis, over 30,000,000 acres of mineral lands are within such railroad

grants, and developments are constantly proving that these lands are the great store houses of large deposits of the precious metals.

The questions submitted, which will be answered in detail, are as follows:

(1) Whether, if any legislation is required, it should not be general, embracing all the States and Territories in which there are railroad grants?

In reply to this question, I would answer, yes. Most of the grants mentioned on page 3 contain more or less mineral, and there would seem to be no good reason for excepting any State or Territory *containing mineral* from such legislation.

By the terms of their grants mineral lands, except coal and iron, are excepted from the operations of all said grants, and any action taken in this matter should apply equally to all of such railroads in said mineral-land States and Territories, *and to the various State grants as well.*

(2) Whether any legislation is necessary, and if the matter can not be adjusted by regulations of the Interior Department.

I am of the opinion that no legislation can be had that will satisfactorily meet all the conditions arising in the adjustment of these grants. Taking the present bill as a basis, and applying its provisions to all of said States and Territories, it would require the appointment of commissioners for at least 20 land districts. This would require 60 commissioners, with the necessary additional help, to examine and determine the character of *30,000,000 acres of land.* The time, labor, and expense necessary to complete an examination of these lands is a matter of mere conjecture, but taking into account the vast area involved, this expense could not but be enormous. I do not think that the proposed commission could satisfactorily accomplish the purpose for which it would be created.

The files of the General Land Office contain a vast amount of matter touching upon the mineral character of the public lands, consisting of mineral entries, mineral applications, affidavits, and protests concerning specific tracts and localities, together with the returns of the various deputy surveyors by whom the public surveys are made. Pending lists of selections are all examined in connection with these records.

The work of a commission under this bill at best would be but superficial. To examine thoroughly into the character of each smallest legal subdivision of the 30,000,000 acres involved, to publish lists thereof, and to take testimony relative thereto would take years of time, and would entail expense no one can estimate, an expense which should not be charged to the United States.

It is a fair proposition that the beneficiaries under the various grants should pay the expense incident to the patenting of their lands.

The Department from its records can, better than any commission, determine the amount and quality of proof necessary to be submitted, and can do this at a very modest cost to the Government.

The regulations of the Department in the matter are much simpler and more effective, and are more likely to accomplish the evident intent of the law. The recent decision of the U. S. Supreme Court in the case of Barden *v.* Northern Pacific Railroad Company (154 U. S., p. 288), sustains the position of the Department as to the status of mineral lands within railroad grants (11 L. D., 239), and holds that "under the law the duty of determining the character of lands granted by Congress and stating it in instruments transferring the title of the Government to the grantees reposes in officers of the Land Department." (*See also* 142 U. S., p. 161.)

The Department, in the exercise of its authority, requires notice to be given by publication and posting of all applications to select lands returned as mineral and the submission of satisfactory proof that the land is in fact nonmineral in character. (*See* circular of July 2, 1894, inclosed.) It has even gone further than that and has required publication and posting for selections of lands in proximity (within 6 miles) to lands containing mining claims (18 L. D., 477, and Departmental instructions of July 9, 1894).

This would seem to cover satisfactorily all selections falling within what are now well-known mineral regions. It is fair to both the corporation and to the Government to assume that all lands within 6 miles of known mines are prima facie mineral, and that lands beyond that distance are prima facie agricultural. This places the burden of proof upon the one denying such presumption. While this rule is an arbitrary one, it is not thought to be oppressive.

The railroad companies have pending before this office lists of selections approximating 25,000,000 acres of surveyed lands adjoining the constructed portions of their roads, and are, therefore, entitled to receive patent at an early date for such land, if found to be of the character described in the grant. It would be manifestly unjust to delay action indefinitely on said lists of selections simply because of the theory that the lands may at some future time be found to be valuable for mineral.

Under the regulations of July 2, 1894, and July 9, 1894, ample opportunity is afforded the corporation and the citizen to secure a thorough investigation as to the character of any particular tract of land.

(3) If legislation is required, the character of the required legislation indicated by amendments to the present bill or by a draft of a new bill.

As hereinbefore stated, the decision of the Supreme Court in the case of Barden *v.* Northern Pacific Railroad Company (154 U. S., 288) finds that the Land Department has full authority and that it is its *duty* to classify and determine the character of all lands within railroad grants, and I do not think further legislation on this point necessary.

(4) Whether if the question of the character of such lands is to be left undetermined until patent issues some legislation should be had to hasten examination and quiet title.

The various lists of selections now pending before this office are being examined and passed upon as rapidly as is thought to be consistent with the interests of all concerned.

The greater number of mining claims are held and worked by virtue of locations made under section 2322, U. S. Revised Statutes, the number on which entry is made being relatively small.

Of most of these mining locations the Department knows nothing, and it frequently happens that lands, to which miners have acquired vested rights, are patented under grants to corporations or to States as agricultural.

The Department could more fully protect the rights of bona fide mineral claimants, and prevent valuable mineral lands from being disposed of under other laws, if section 2324, United States Revised Statutes, were amended so as to require the mineral claimant, within thirty days after making his location, to file in the local land office, for notation and transmittal to the General Land Office, a certified copy of the location certificate thereof, describing the locus of his claim (by section, township, and range, when possible), otherwise said location to be void. This amendment should apply as well to locations heretofore made.

Such a law would place the Department in possession of a vast fund of information as to the character or alleged character of the public lands.

Lands covered by such locations might then be treated as prima facie mineral, and the burden of disproving this presumption would rest upon those applying to take under other laws.

I recommend the enactment of such an amendment to section 2324, United States Revised Statutes.

(5) Whether any recent rules or regulations by the Department have been issued on the question.

The regulations of the Department have been named in the answer to the second question submitted, and copies thereof are herewith inclosed.

(6) The definition of mineral lands as adopted by the Department and the courts.

The definition of mineral lands as adopted by the Department and the courts, so far as the disposition of the public lands are concerned is, that lands are mineral when they contain mineral in sufficient quantity and quality to render them more valuable for mining purposes than for agriculture. It must be observed that the question of the character of the land is a question of fact to be determined only upon full proof *as to the particular tract involved.* As hereinbefore stated coal and iron are not excepted from the grants.

(7) Any suggestions connected "with this important and difficult matter."

In view of what has already been said, I have no further suggestions to make at this time.

I have the honor to earnestly recommend that this bill, Senate No. 434, be *not* enacted into law.

I return herewith, as directed, the communication of Hon. Samuel Pasco and Senate bill No. 434.

Very respectfully,

S. W. LAMOREUX,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR, GENERAL LAND OFFICE,
Washington, D. C., August 29, 1893.

SIR: I have the honor to submit my report, in duplicate, on Senate bill No. 434, first session Fifty-third Congress, entitled "A bill to provide for the examination and classification of certain mineral lands in the States of Montana and Idaho," referred to me August 22, 1893.

The bill proposes a method for the examination and classification of lands, as to their mineral and nonmineral character, which are within the land-grant and indemnity limits of the Northern Pacific Railroad, as defined by an act of Congress entitled "An act granting lands to aid in the construction of a railroad and telegraph line from Lake Superior to Puget Sound, on the Pacific coast, by the northern route," approved July 2, 1864, and acts supplemental and amendatory thereof (13 Stat., 365, also 16 Stat., 378).

The provisions of this bill are very nearly identical with those of H. R. bill No. 6831, first session Fifty-second Congress, upon which a report was made by this office to the honorable Secretary on March 26, 1892.

The principal difference between the bills being that, in this bill provision is made for the appointment of three commissioners in each of the land districts of Bozeman, Helena, and Missoula, in the State of Montana, and Cœur d' Alene in the State of Idaho, whereas said bill No. 6831 provided for the appointment of only three commissioners in both States.

Upon a careful consideration I am satisfied that there is urgent necessity for Congressional legislation in the nature of that embraced by the bill now under consideration.

In the main I am in accord with the recommendations contained in the report above referred to upon this proposed legislation, and for the purposes of this report I shall, to a very large extent, adopt the former.

Section 3 of the act granting lands to the Northern Pacific Railroad Company granted every alternate section of public land not mineral, designated by odd numbers, to the amount of 20 alternate sections per mile on each side of said railroad line, through the Territories of the United States. In addition to the grant made, certain indemnity provisions extended the grant beyond the original limits. The particular region of country covered by the act was under a territorial form of government at the time of its approval. A careful perusal of the act will disclose the fact that three things were required to designate the specific land intended by the grant to pass to the company:

(1) It was necessary that the company should definitely locate its line of road.

(2) That the land should be surveyed in order that the alternate sections might be known.

(3) That the character of the land should in some manner be determined.

The first requirement the company complied with by definitely locating and constructing its road. The second requirement is being complied with by the extension of the public surveys, but for the third requirement, to wit, the classification of the land as to its mineral or nonmineral character, no expres slegislative provision has been made.

Vast deposits of gold, silver, copper, and lead have been discovered within the grant and indemnity limits of said road in the States mentioned in this bill, and new discoveries of valuable mines are constantly being made therein. I have no doubt that it can be shown from trustworthy authorities that within the region covered by this bill large undeveloped deposits of valuable minerals exist which are of great magnitude and value.

In the States mentioned, said company has filed selection lists embracing large quantities of land, and the records of this office show that mines have been discovered and developed within the boundaries of many of the tracts of land selected, and that new discoveries on the odd sections are being made from day to day.

The extent of the grant, and the magnitude of the interests involved, and its great importance to the general public, imperatively demand some legislation whereby the lands, which rightfully and lawfully belong to the railroad company within the States named, may be designated, and those lands that are not affected by the grant, although within alternate odd-numbered sections, may be specified.

As to the quantity of land within the Northern Pacific land grant and indemnity limits, in the States of Montana and Idaho, the quantity surveyed within said grant, the number of acres selected by the company, and the present status of such selections, the following is submitted as an approximate estimate:

	Acres.
Granted in Montana	17,838,080
In 10-mile indemnity limits	4,992,000
Selected by company, now pending	4,336,285
Surveyed within the grant	14,758,720
Granted in Idaho	1,900,800
In 10-mile indemnity limits	576,000
Selected by company, now pending	122,000
Surveyed within the grant	403,200

No lands have been patented to the company in either of said States. The selections made by the company of lands in those States are pending before this office, and the adjustment of them necessarily involves the question of the character of the lands affected by the granting act, which must ultimately be determined by the Department.

The grant to this company within the said States ought to be adjusted with as little delay as a proper regard for the rights and interests of all concerned therein will admit of; but in case the grant is adjusted by patenting to the company such lands within its limits as are not now known to contain mineral, without special examination, it is clear that many tracts will be so transferred that will ultimately be found to contain mineral in paying quantities. It is thought by some, who have had opportunity to be well informed, that at least one-third of the land within the limits of the grant in said States is mineral in character.

To me it is very clear that a law should be passed by Congress enabling the Land Department to thoroughly investigate the character of lands supposed to be mineral and within the reservation of the law, before the railroad company is entitled to patent; and inasmuch as this bill has for its purpose and object a careful examination and a just and intelligent classification of this great body of lands, with reference to their mineral or nonmineral character within the meaning of the granting act by competent officers, and the speedy and equitable determination of the rights

of the Government and the said company, within the primary and indemnity limits of the grant in said States, as well as the protection of the public interests in so much of the land affected by the grant as was not intended for the company, I recommend its passage.

Your predecessor's annual report, dated November 15, 1889, contains the following observations relative to mineral lands in railroad grants, from which I quote so much as is deemed pertinent and appropriate for the purposes of this report:

"The question presents itself in regard to the mineral lands lying within the grant of the railroads running through the mineral belts, and which would otherwise than because of their mineral character be included within the railroad grants. The act of Congress absolutely and unqualifiedly reserves all mineral lands from the railroad grants made to the most extended and important railroads of our country, and this reservation affects the claim of such a road as the Northern Pacific to a great part of its land subsidy. It also affects to a very considerable degree the Central and Southern Pacific roads, with some others; and how to determine what are mineral lands at this time when the roads are claiming their grants is indeed a difficult and most important matter. Originally it was left to the company to make affidavit in a form adopted by my predecessors and by them deemed sufficient for a long while, but by which it was not made necessary for the officer taking the oath to swear to his actual knowledge that the land was not mineral.

"Many of the selections made by the railroads under their grants were supported by such affidavit, but upon the same coming before the Commissioner (Sparks) of the General Land Office he demanded that a further affidavit should be made, the same as required from settlers on homestead claims, whereby actual knowledge of the facts that the same was not mineral land was required to be sworn to. This the railroad companies have failed to do, insisting that their claims, made under the regulations at the time existing, are valid and should be allowed. This question is not yet determined, but it is deemed a matter to which your attention should be invited for the purpose of having, if necessary, some further legislation upon the subject. On the one hand it is to be noted that the additional affidavit has been required since the selections were claimed; on the other, stands the absolute reservation of the law and the right of the people to enjoy these mineral lands, if such indeed there be among the selections made by the railroads.

"If legislation is not made on this subject the Department will have to decide by such light as may be obtained as to the real nature of the lands, whether mineral or not, however difficult the inquiry may be and whatever the responsibility assumed. It is deemed, however, that a law should be passed by Congress enabling the Land Department to thoroughly investigate the character of lands supposed to be mineral and within the reservation of the law before the railroad is entitled to any cession whatever. It would require a considerable appropriation for the purpose of investigation and survey; and, connected with this, authority should be given to the Secretary of the Interior to refuse to certify lands to the railroads until there was clear proof that the same was not mineral. The question is most important. It is far reaching in its results and may affect the welfare and independence of many of our citizens. It would not be unreasonable to direct that the patents issued should themselves contain a reservation of any land therein described if it prove upon further development to be actually mineral land.

"The mineral land should be preserved for our people, and there is no claim on the part of the railroads to obtain these sources of vast wealth not intended for them that should be humored to the least degree beyond the law. This I say in no spirit of hostility to the railroad companies, but from a thorough conviction that the best interests of the Republic would be served by dividing this vast mineral wealth among individuals, rather than by allowing it by any means to fall into possession and control of large corporations. It is not intended to be granted to them, and they should not be allowed to obtain it by default. Sufficient means of proving exactly what the character of the land is should be provided."

Believing, as I do, that there is urgent necessity for legislation of the kind proposed by this bill, and recommending the enactment of its principal provisions, I deem it proper, however, to suggest for your consideration whether or not the third section thereof embodies definitions of "mineral lands" materially different from the definitions of those terms found in decisions of the U. S. Supreme Court, viz, in Deffeback *v.* Hawk (115 U. S., p. 404); United States *v.* Mining Company, (128 U. S., 683), and in Davis's Administrator *v.* Wiebold (139 U. S., p. 519), and, if so, whether any amendment of said section is necessary. My purpose in calling attention to this point is to emphasize the importance of so framing that section that in case it should become a law it would be very certain to withstand the severe test of the highest judicial scrutiny to which it will undoubtedly be subjected.

Your attention is also called to the provision in said third section of the bill, that a single mining claim found within a section of land shall be prima facie evidence that the entire section on which such claim is located shall be considered as mineral land.

I would suggest an amendment in this particular, so as to make such mining claim prima facie evidence of the mineral character only of the *40-acre* tract within which it is situated.

The magnitude of the interests involved in this proposed legislation renders an appeal to the highest courts of the land more than probable in case it should be enacted, and it would therefore seem necessary to exercise the most thoughtful care in framing its separate sections.

The foregoing represents my view upon this important bill, and it is submitted in accordance with your request.

Copy of the bill received is herewith inclosed.

Very respectfully,

S. W. LAMOREUX,
Commissioner.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR.

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR,
Washington, July 9, 1894.

SIR: In the matter of the selection by railroad companies of lands in satisfaction of their grants the following rules and regulations will be observed in determining whether the lands selected are mineral or nonmineral lands:

(1) Where the lands have been returned by the surveyor-general as mineral a hearing may be had to determine the character of the land, under rules 110 and 111 of Rules and Regulations, issued December 10, 1891, controlling the disposal of mining claims.

(2) Where the lands selected by the company are within a mineral belt, or proximate to any mining claim, the railroad company will be required to file with the local land officers an affidavit by the land agent of the company, which affidavit shall be attached to said list when returned, setting forth in substance that he has caused the lands mentioned to be carefully examined by the agents and employés of the company as to their mineral or agricultural character and that to the best of his knowledge and belief none of the lands returned in said list are mineral lands.

Upon receipt of said list you will cause it to be examined and a clear list to be prepared of all lands embraced therein that are not within a radius of 6 miles from any mineral entry, claim, or location, which list shall be transmitted to the Department for its approval. If any of the lands embraced in said list of selections are found upon examination to be within a radius of 6 miles from any mineral entry, claim, or location, you will cause a supplemental list of such lands to be prepared, and return the same to the register and receiver of the district in which they are situated, and notify the railroad company that they have been so returned.

The register and receiver will at once cause notice to be published in such newspapers as shall be designated by the Commissioner of the General Land Office, containing a statement that the railroad company has applied for a patent for the lands, designating the same by townships, and has filed lists of the same in the local land office; that said lists are open to the public for inspection; that a copy of the same, by descriptive subdivisions, has been conspicuously posted in said land office for inspection by persons interested and the public generally; and that the local land officers will receive protests, or contests, within the next sixty days for any of said tracts or subdivisions of land claimed to be more valuable for mineral than for agricultural purposes.

At the expiration of said sixty days, the register and receiver will return to the Commissioner of the General Land Office said supplemental list, noting thereon any protests, or contests, or suggestions, as to the mineral character of any of such lands, together with any information they may have received as to the mineral character of any of the lands mentioned in said list. After the same shall have been returned by the register and receiver, you will first eliminate from said supplemental list all the lands that have been protested, or contested, or claimed to be more valuable for mineral than for agricultural purposes, or concerning which any suggestion has been made as to their mineral character. The remaining lands you will certify to this Department for approval and patenting as agricultural.

In regard to lands protested, or contested, or claimed to be mineral, or concerning which any suggestion has been made or report by the register and receiver as to their mineral character, you will order a hearing to be had by the local land officers in each case, after giving due notice to the persons furnishing such information and to the railroad company, under the existing rules and regulations of the Department concerning hearings in cases where the land has been returned as mineral land.

The railroad company shall pay to the register and receiver the cost of advertising said lands in the manner set forth.

You are further instructed that all lists which have been heretofore prepared in accordance with any rules, regulations, or instructions of the Secretary of the Interior, where such rules have been complied with (such as furnishing affidavits showing the nonmineral character of the lands, in accordance with the instructions of the Interior Department), and such mineral affidavits furnished for each subdivision of 40 acres shall be excepted from the terms of the foregoing regulations. Also, where lists of selections are now pending of lands returned by the surveyor-general as mineral, where hearings have been had in accordance with rules 110 and 111 of Rules and Regulations of December 10, 1891, above referred to, and the local officers have determined that said lands are nonmineral in character, and such determination has been approved by the General Land Office, such lands shall be submitted to the Department for approval without further investigation, although they may be within 6 miles of any mineral claim or location, unless since said hearing mineral claims or locations have been made of any tract embraced in said list, in which event you will eliminate said tract from said list and hold the same for further investigation.

Very respectfully,

HOKE SMITH,
Secretary.

The COMMISSIONER OF THE GENERAL LAND OFFICE.

AUGUST 1, 1894.

DEAR SIR: I have just finished reading your official letter of July 30, giving your views on the Senate bill for the examination and classification of mineral lands in Montana and Idaho.

This is a copy of the same bill that was introduced in the House by myself, that was favorably reported by the committee, and that passed the House on the 24th of July. It is also the same bill concerning which Mr. Irvine, mineral land commissioner from Montana, and myself held consultations with you on two or three different occasions, the last of which occurring some days after the rendition of the judgment of the Supreme Court of the United States in the Barden case. It is also the same bill, or copy of the same bill, that you reported favorably as Commissioner while the same was pending before the House, and concerning which you kindly wrote to Speaker Crisp a personal letter, asking that consideration might be had of it in the House.

I understood at all times that you were favorable to this bill, both from your written report and from your conversation concerning it, and, therefore, after consultation with Senator Power and Mr. Irvine, have concluded to write you this letter, thinking that there must have been some misunderstanding on your part as to the provisions of the bill concerning which you wrote your letter of July 30.

The only changes that were made in this bill on the floor of the House were simply changes as to the amount of compensation to be received by the commissioners, whose appointment was provided for, and slight limitations regarding the compensation of attorneys appointed to represent the United States, and a reduction of $20,000 in the sum total appropriated by the bill. So that the same principles are involved in this bill, and indeed the same language, with these slight modifications above noted.

This being the case, my conviction that some misunderstanding or mistake has been made induces me to write you this letter, in the hope that whatever error has occurred may be corrected, for the thought has suggested itself to me that your letter of July 30 might have been prepared by some law clerk or other party in the employ of the Department, and that the same had not been submitted to you or met with your approval.

An early reply will greatly oblige,

Yours, very truly,

CHAS. S. HARTMAN.

The COMMISSIONER OF THE GENERAL LAND OFFICE,
Washington, D. C.

The foregoing letter has been submitted to me and meets with my approval.

GEO. W. IRVINE,
Mineral Land Commissioner, State of Montana.

GENERAL LAND OFFICE,
Washington, August 2, 1894.

DEAR SIR: In reply to your favor of yesterday in reference to the Senate bill for the classification of mineral lands in Montana and Idaho, I have the honor to say that soon after the conversation we had (after the House bill had been before me

and reported upon) I was directed by the Secretary of the Interior to prepare rules and regulations under the Barden decision. I prepared a draft of such rules and regulations as I thought would cover the case, and fixed a date for a hearing and notified all railroad companies and parties interested. A hearing was had upon the questions presented in the bill and in the rules and regulations as drafted. After full consideration and examination I found that from the terms of the bill, after the examination therein proposed, the Department would have no information upon which to found a hearing, as suggested in the Barden decision, and that after the report of the commissioners had been filed it would not be final, and the Department would have to go through the same *modus operandi* that they have for years to determine whether the lands were mineral or nonmineral.

The commissioners' report would be merely prima facie evidence of the mineral character of the lands, or of their nonmineral character, and a hearing would have to be had to determine what lands the railroads would be entitled to under their grants. After the rules and regulations were prepared and submitted to the Secretary, and after consultation with the assistant attorney-general and his assistants, I came to the conclusion that the bill was impracticable and that it would not lead to the results you expected, as I originally thought it would. According to the terms of the bill, when the lands had been classified as mineral and nonmineral they would be entitled to a hearing and a determination by the General Land Office as to their character, under the Barden decision. We went over this decision very carefully, and over the provisions of the bill, and came to the conclusion that if the bill became law this office would still have to go through the same proceedings as now before the lands could be patented to the railroad companies, as the Barden decision distinctly holds that there must be a finding by the Department as to the mineral or nonmineral character of the lands before patents can issue.

Now, under the bill all the information we would have would be merely that the commissioners had determined that certain lands should be classed as mineral or agricultural. This Department, from such a report, could not patent the lands without a hearing and without putting into motion the usual methods for determining the mineral or nonmineral character of the lands. Under the rules and regulations now in force (adopted since the conversation with you and my report on the House bill) a determination can be had of all lands included in grants a great deal quicker, much more satisfactorily, and at much less expense to the Government.

For these reasons I made the report upon the Senate bill, and believe that it is for the interests of the Government and the people of the West that a determination be had as soon as possible as to the mineral character of lands claimed by railroad companies under their grants and those they are entitled to have patented to them, and the mineral lands so declared, so the companies can take their indemnity in lieu thereof.

I submitted all these matters to the Secretary and had a conversation with him before the adoption of the rules and regulations, and I thought these rules and regulations would meet with your approval, and that you would see that they would facilitate matters and close up those grants in the quickest way possible. I am very sorry they do not meet with your approbation, as I thought they were just what you wanted, and we would not need the aid of Congress to make laws and regulations for the adjustment of these grants.

I remain, with respect, your obedient servant,

S. W. LAMOREUX,
Commissioner.

HON. CHARLES S. HARTMAN,
House of Representatives.

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES U. S.,
Washington, D. C., August 7, 1894.

DEAR SIR: For and on behalf of the people of Montana, whom we represent in the capacity of mineral-land commissioner of the State, U. S. Senator, and Representative in the lower House of Congress, respectively, we, the undersigned, respectfully protest against the execution of the instructions contained in your letter of July 9, 1894, addressed to the honorable Commissioner of the General Land Office, relative to the duties of registers and receivers in the selection and examination of mineral lands. In addition to this protest against the execution of said rules, we respectfully ask that the same may be revoked in so far as they apply to the State of Montana, for the following reasons:

(1) The provisions of the rules above referred to turn over to the Northern Pacific Railroad Company the authority and right to examine, select, ascertain, classify, and define the lands within the limits of its grant, and, in our judgment,

it is better that the Government should select its agents from a wholly disinterested and nonpartisan source.

(2) Said rules, placing in the hands of the railroad company the right to represent the Government and itself in the selection of such lands, practically make their selection and ascertainment a prima facie case, and throws the burden of proof upon anyone interested in obtaining title to mineral lands.

(3) As a portion of the second rule issued under date of July 9, 1894, after authorizing the land agent of the company to file with the local land officers an affidavit which shall be attached to the list of lands when returned, setting forth that he has caused the lands mentioned to be carefully examined *by the agent and employés of the company* as to their mineral or nonmineral character, etc., you then use this language:

"Upon receipt of said list you will cause it to be examined and a clear list to be prepared of all lands embraced therein that are not within a radius of 6 miles from any mineral entry, claim, or location, which list shall be transmitted to the Department for its approval. If any of the lands embraced in said list of selections are found upon examination to be within a radius of 6 miles from any mineral entry, claim, or location, you will cause a supplemental list of such lands to be prepared and return the same to the register and receiver of the district in which they are situated, and notify the railroad company that they have been so returned. The register and receiver will at once cause notice to be published in such newspapers as shall be designated by the Commissioner of the General Land Office, containing a statement that the railroad company has applied for a patent for the lands, designating the same by townships, and has filed lists of the same in the local land office; that said lists are open to the public for inspection; that a copy of the same, by descriptive subdivisions, has been conspicuously posted in said land office for inspection by persons interested and the public generally; and that the local land officers will receive protests, or contests, within the next sixty days for any of said tracts or subdivisions of land claimed to be more valuable for mineral than for agricultural purposes.

"At the expiration of said sixty days the register and receiver will return to the Commissioner of the General Land Office said supplemental list, noting thereon any protests or contests or suggestions as to the mineral character of any of such lands, together with any information they may have received as to the mineral character of any of the lands mentioned in said list. After the same shall have been returned by the register and receiver you will first eliminate from said supplemental list all the lands that have been protested or contested or claimed to be more valuable for mineral than for agricultural purposes, or concerning which any suggestion has been made as to their mineral character. The remaining lands you will certify to this Department for approval and patenting as agricultural."

This portion of the rule, in effect, operates as a confiscation of the mineral lands of the United States to the use and benefit of the Northern Pacific Railroad Company. You first say:

"Upon receipt of said list you will cause it to be examined and a clear list to be prepared of all lands embraced therein that are not within a radius of 6 miles from any mineral entry, claim, or location, which list shall be transmitted to the Department for its approval."

There is no word or suggestion in these rules that any other person but the "agents and employés of the company" shall make any personal examination of these lands. The only examination provided for on the part of anybody representing the Government is an examination of the list. The provision for the preparation of a clear list of all lands embraced therein not within a radius of 6 miles from any mineral entry, claim, or location, and for the certification by patent to the railroad company of all such lands as are not within the radius of 6 miles of any mineral entry, claim, or location, simply operates as a gift to the Northern Pacific Railroad Company of all the mines and mineral lands which may hereafter be discovered that are not now within a radius of 6 miles of some known mineral entry, claim, or location.

Against this clause of the rule we desire to especially interpose our protest. The effect of the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States in the case of Barden *v.* Northern Pacific Railroad Company will practically be nullified by the action of the Interior Department, in the issuance of these rules, if they are to be put in force.

To say that it is the policy of the U. S. Government to give the vast undeveloped, undiscovered mineral wealth lying within the grant to the Northern Pacific Railroad Company in the States of Montana and Idaho to any corporation, and to say that in the face of the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States that they are not entitled to any of these mineral lands, is but to say what this Department will do if it puts into practical operation and application the provisions and principles contained in this code of rules.

By the terms of your rules it will be observed that the very fact that the lands are without the "radius of 6 miles from any mineral entry, claim, or location" is the only prerequisite necessary to give the railroad company title to such lands and to authorize the Land Department to patent such lands to the company, the question

of their mineral or nonmineral character not being considered. The injustice of the rule can be thoroughly appreciated when you come to consider that scarcely a year goes by but what new mining camps are discovered, new claims are staked out, and those claims and camps are in many instances far removed from any known mineral location, claim, or mine.

It is only fair to presume that the same rules will govern the mining industry in the future as has governed it in the past. It is only fair to presume that the future will each year add additional mining claims and additional mining camps to those already in existence, and in the vast area of the State of Montana, a State of 146,000 square miles, where the mining industry is now in its infancy, it is not too much to expect that there will be a large number of new mining camps and new mineral locations established and made at points in the State now entirely undeveloped, if not entirely unknown, but still within the limits of the Northern Pacific Railroad grant. And all these you propose by the terms and effect of this rule to donate to the Northern Pacific Railroad Company.

(4) We object to that portion of your rules providing for the preparation of a supplemental list of lands, and all the proceedings which you propose under that rule, for this reason:

That the notice which you require the railroad company to have published in some newspaper does not contain a description of the land for which patents are applied for, but only refers to certain lists that are filed in the local land office, and "that said lists are open to the public for inspection, that a copy of the same by descriptive subdivisions, has been conspicuously posted in said land office for inspection by persons interested, and the public generally." What a farce it is to give notice to a miner, or to a number of citizens engaged in the mining business, who live in many instances, 200 miles from the local land office, that an application has been filed for patenting certain lands by the railroad company, and that he can find a description of those lands by traveling from 100 to 200 miles to the local land office, and if he is sufficiently interested after he goes there and reads the notice, he can then file a protest against the issuance of patent.

The railroad company always has its agents and attorneys handy and convenient to the land office to carefully guard its interests. That is its right, interest, and duty, and we make no complaint of that. But the men engaged in the mining occupation in our State, that are scattered throughout the hills in remote camps, can not be expected to employ agents to examine these lists, which are prepared by the railroad agents, acting as the agents of the Government of the United States.

If the rules which you have promulgated are to remain in force, then in order to prevent the greater portion of the mineral lands contained within the limits of the grant of the Northern Pacific Railroad Company from becoming the property of that company in spite of the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States to the contrary, protracted and expensive litigation will be necessary.

If there were any doubt whatever as to the effect of this rule, that doubt is cleared away by the following language contained in the rule itself:

"At the expiration of said sixty days the register and receiver will return to the Commissioner of the General Land Office said supplemental list, noting thereon any protests or contests or suggestions as to the mineral character of any of such lands, together with any information they may have received as to the mineral character of any of the lands mentioned in said list. After the same shall have been returned by the register and receiver, you will first eliminate from said supplemental list all the lands that have been protested or contested or claimed to be more valuable for mineral than for agricultural purposes, or concerning which any suggestion has been made as to their mineral character. The remaining lands you will certify to this Department for approval and patenting as agricultural."

You give sixty days from the posting of the notice to the miners of our State to come in and see whether or not they are satisfied with what the agents of the Northern Pacific Railroad Company, who are designated by your rule as the agents of the Government, have done in the matter of the classification and segregation of mineral lands within the Northern Pacific grant. And in the event no one appears within that time you propose to have certified to the Department for approval and patenting all the lands which the agents of the railroad company, acting as the agents of the Interior Department, have seen fit to select for the company.

(5) Regarding that portion of the rule referring to lists already prepared in accordance with rules and regulations, where such rules have been complied with, that the lands affected should be excepted from the terms of the rule of July 9, we simply say this is in direct contravention of the decision of the Supreme Court declaring that the mineral lands are not included and were not intended to be included in the grant to the Northern Pacific Railroad Company, and in view of the fact that no lands have been patented to the railroad company within its grant in the State of Montana, we protest against the issuance of any patent or patents to said company for any lands within its grant in the State of Montana until the entire grant is examined and classified and the mineral lands segregated from the nonmineral by a com-

petent commission, to be appointed in the manner set forth in H. R. 3476, which passed the House of Representatives on the 24th of July, 1894.

(6) These rules, which were issued by your Department without any notice whatever to the mineral land commissioner of our State, or to either of our Representatives in Congress, are so harsh and oppressive upon our citizens that we feel justified in asking the total abrogation of the same.

(7) We deny the right of the Secretary of the Interior to issue a code of rules which, in its effect, abrogates, sets aside, and nullifies the law of the land.

(8) The bill to which we have above referred, providing for the classification and examination of mineral lands within the grant of the railroad company, was a bill which met with your qualified approval in your letter of September 14, 1893, addressed to the Hon. James H. Berry, chairman Committee on Public Lands, U. S. Senate, which can be found in H. R. Report 502, second session Fifty-third Congress.

The bill also received the indorsement of the honorable Commissioner of the General Land Office in his letter of October 14, 1893, addressed to the honorable Secretary of the Interior, and which also appears in in the same report.

We had every reason to suppose and every reason to believe that with these letters in our possession, and as a portion of the public files, that your support, and the support of the honorable Commissioner of the General Land Office would be heartily accorded to us until the final passage of the bill in the Senate. But to our great surprise and, we may say, disappointment, we find your Department, on the 9th of July, issuing a code of rules, to which we have referred, and, on the 30th of July, writing a letter to the Hon. Samuel Pasco, acting chairman of the Committee on Public Lands, U. S. Senate, in opposition to Senate bill 434, which was an exact copy of the House bill to which we have above referred.

It is true, it may be said, that if we are right in denying the authority of the Interior Department to thus nullify the effect of the decision of the Supreme Court, we have our remedy by contesting the question in the courts. We are aware of that right, but are not desirous of entailing the expense of a protracted litigation upon our people again. Having won the main fight in the Barden case it is with great regret that we find the Interior Department nullifying the effect of that decision by causing the agents of the railroad company to be made the agents of the Government, and by placing in the hands of the railroad company the machinery whereby its agents shall make the examination and classification of these lands.

It seems to us that the reasons assigned by the Land Department in support of the bill for the examination and classification of mineral lands in the States of Montana and Idaho were good when they were first given by that Department, and that they are equally good now.

It seems to us that the appointment of the commissioners provided by that bill from the residents of the respective land districts, of men who have had practical experience in the mining and prospecting business, is a much more accurate, just, and satisfactory way of examining and classifying the mineral lands within the grant than the proposition contained in your code of rules, which constitute the agents and employés of the beneficiary under the grant the agents to perform that service.

Your action in thus designating the agents of the company to examine, classify, and set apart the mineral lands from the agricultural lands, to the end that the lands found to be nonmineral shall be patented to the railroad company, would find a parallel if a court ordering partition of lands from several parcels between conflicting contestants for those lands should arbitrarily appoint one of the contestants to make examination and selection of the property in controversy. There is but little doubt what the result of such examination and selection would be. It is certain that the party making the selection would not get any the worst of the transaction, and I am of the opinion that the agents of the railroad company acting under your authority, proceeding to examine, classify, and select these lands, that they will see to it that the Northern Pacific Railroad Company will at least receive all it is entitled to.

We are anxious to receive a reply to this communication at as early a date as possible, that we may know whether it is to be the policy of your Department to continue this code of rules or not, that we may govern our future course accordingly.

We are, yours, very truly,

GEO. W. IRVIN,
Mineral Land Commissioner, State of Montana.
THOMAS C. POWER,
U. S. Senator, State of Montana.
CHAS. S. HARTMAN,
Member of Congress, State of Montana.

The SECRETARY OF THE INTERIOR,
Washington, D. C.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 259.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 8, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Military Affairs, and ordered to be printed.

Mr. GALLINGER presented the following

STATEMENT OF PATRICK LARKIN, COMPANY K, FOURTH VERMONT VOLUNTEERS, VERMONT BRIGADE, GETTY'S DIVISION, SIXTH ARMY CORPS, AND PETITION FOR REMOVAL OF CHARGE OF DESERTION AND MEDICAL EXAMINATION.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA, *ss:*

Patrick Larkin, a citizen of the State of New Hampshire, residing in the city of Manchester, being duly sworn before the undersigned, a notary public in and for the District of Columbia, deposes and says that he is the identical Patrick Larkin who enlisted in the military service of the United States at Woodstock, Vt., August 23, 1863, to serve three years, and was duly assigned to Company K, Fourth Vermont Volunteers; that he immediately joined his regiment with the Army of the Potomac, which was a part of the Vermont Brigade, Getty's division, Sixth Army Corps; that he continued in service, doing military duty as a faithful soldier until about the middle of February, 1864, when, having been relieved from picket duty and returned to the camp of his regiment at Brandy Station, Va., he, in company with five other soldiers of his regiment, concluded to go out foraging in order to get some sheep which they had observed outside the picket line.

They spoke of their intention to Lieut. Worcester, of affiant's company, who consented for them to go, but cautioned them to be very cautious and not be absent long. The names of the *other* members of the foraging party, as near as he can remember, are:

(1) Lewis Pacquette, afterward killed in battle in the Wilderness.

(2) Lucius J. Goodwin, who, after going a short distance, returned to camp, being sick.

(3) A soldier of Company H, name unknown.

(4) A soldier of Company H, name unknown. Was a man past middle age, full beard.

With himself, these constituted the foraging party.

Affiant was born in 1842, and was 19 years of age when he enlisted. He received from H. Grissom, of St. Johnsbury, Vt., for whom he was a substitute, $250. He received as bounty, on arrival at Boston, $50, and when the foraging party left camp, on or about February 17, 1864, had received four months' pay, $52, and had expended about $15, leaving on his person in bills about $345. Forty-five dollars of this he sewed in his shirt collar before starting. He had intended sending

the $300 to his father when he returned, and would have done so sooner but for lack of opportunity. After leaving camp the party went to the picket line and through it, but Goodwin, being sick, returned to camp. The party then consisted of 4 persons. They had not proceeded more than 5 miles beyond our lines when they were surprised and captured by White's irregular Confederate cavalry. By them they were disarmed and stripped of all valuables. Affiant had joined the party at the instance of Pacquette, who stated that there were none of the enemy within 60 miles of our camp, and that the sheep would be easily caught and give us some food fit to eat.

After capture the soldiers marched the party as rapidly as possible for about 10 miles west and camped at a church west of the Blue Hills. During the night the entire party escaped and traveled back over the mountains toward our lines as fast as possible, but were discovered before reaching the Union lines by a party of soldiers mounted, who opened fire upon the fugitives. Affiant, being in advance of the rest, was wounded by two minie balls, one passing through his left foot and one through his right hand. Upon receiving the ball in his foot, he fell, striking his skull upon a sharp point of something, crushing the skull, and he became unconscious and knew nothing of the other members of the party afterward. The first consciousness of his surroundings affiant had was the sense of being lifted into a cart with some straw in it and being carted away. He knew little else afterward for a month and a half to two months, when he again regained consciousness and found himself in a rough cabin, on a straw bed or pallet, being attended by an old lady and a small boy. He is not certain what was the name of this family, but thinks it was Balch or something sounding like that. The boy's name was Tom. Here he remained, as near as he can remember, till the last of October or the 1st of November.

As soon as he realized his surroundings he gave the old lady, who was wretchedly poor, all the money he had sewed in his shirt collar, and about the time stated left her house, being without shoes and with but little clothing, all of that which he had when captured having been taken from him, as he supposes, by his captors. The injury to his head, which has left a deep indenture in the skull, has affected his memory of the details of events occurring after his being wounded, and he also bears the scars of the bullet wounds in his left foot and right hand, which have greatly disabled him ever since.

As the Balch family were nearly starving, he concluded to leave them at the time above stated and take all chances of recapture in hope of finding his way to our lines. He was very lame and feeble and his head was not right. His only thought was to get somewhere where he could learn his whereabouts and find the way to the Union Army. In his wanderings he came upon a farmer, who offered him work enough to earn his board and a pair of shoes. He told him all he knew or could remember of himself. He claimed to be a Union man, and said Union officers frequently came to his house.

Affiant remained till spring with this man—his name he is not sure of, but thinks it was James Terrell—doing odd jobs about the place. His wife and two daughters fitted affiant up with some clothes and shoes, and he promised to turn affiant over to some Union officer, but as none came, he asked affiant to stay with him thereafter. Affiant, early in April, concluded that it was this man's intention to keep him there, and that he ought to try again to reach our lines, and left the farm for that purpose. Affiant is unable to recall any locations visited by him, and has since revisited Brandy Station, Va., and tried to find

the old lady Balch or her son, but could neither recognize the landmarks nor learn of such person, nor of the farmer, Terrell, or his farm, nor recognize the locality. He therefore concluded that his mind was not clear at that time, and that further search was useless.

After leaving Farmer Terrell, about March, 1865, he wandered along a railroad which had Baltimore and Ohio cars upon it, and supposed he was traveling north, but he left the railroad, which he found was not a north and south line, and took to the roads and fields. After wandering about for nearly a month he was arrested in the vicinity of Richmond, Va., by a lad who was armed and claimed to be a sort of provost guard, and who took him to Richmond, Va., and there released him, on the advice of M. F. Hutchins, who told the guard the war was over and that he had no right to hold affiant as a prisoner. Affiant remained with Hutchins for a few days, and received some money from him, and was clothed and fed by him, and started upon his journey home to St. Johnsbury, Vt., where he arrived in the latter part of June or first of July, 1865, in poor health, much emaciated, and in feeble mental condition.

Affiant's memory for exact dates and places has suffered by the serious injury to his head, and for this reason, and from the fact that various statements heretofore filed in the War Department in his efforts to remove the charge of desertion from the record have been prepared for him by different attorneys from his verbal statements, which they did not fully comprehend and frequently abbreviated in reducing same to writing, affiant believes that he has not been fairly treated, but has suffered on these accounts, when, in justice, the peculiar and unusual circumstances attending his capture and escape, and the serious injury to his head, which affects his mind and memory to this day, should have caused a more lenient consideration of his case. He avers and declares that he was a willing volunteer at as early an age as possible, with the intent and desire of serving out his full term; that he was contented in the service and had no desire to desert, and that, had his injuries not affected his mind, he would have succeeded in rejoining his command; that when free in Richmond, Va., in May, 1865, had he understood that it was his duty to report to Government officials he would have done so, but was informed and believed that his regiment's time being out and discharged from service, and the war over, all he had to do was to get to his home as soon and as best he could.

Affiant asks that a medical examination be made of the wounds, in head, hand, and foot, which he received as above stated, and that the affidavits of his officers, comrades, neighbors, and friends and of Mr. Hutchins and others be also examined, as they substantiate the material statements he has herein made. He asks that this measure of justice be not longer withheld from him, and that the dishonorable stain, the records now put upon an otherwise honorable name, be removed. He has filed the affidavits of Joseph Minor, a comrade; Lieut. Col. Pingree, of his regiment: C. H. Rich, a comrade; Lucius J. Goodwin, a comrade; Willis H. Morton, a lieutenant of affiant's regiment; John J. and Edward Hodgkinson, neighbors and friends after return home, and of M. F. Hutchins, the man who received him from the lad who arrested him near Richmond, Va., and acted the part of a good Samaritan to him and sent him home.

The War Department has held affiant not entitled to a correction of record, by applying to him the same rule as it would to a man whose mental faculties were sound, under similar circumstances, and has

made much of his lapses of memory, which resulted in apparent inconsistencies, and has construed his evidence accordingly. He asks that his case and evidence be considered by Congress, in the light of his impaired mental powers, which resulted from the skull injuries, which weakened his mind and memory, and he is sure that justice will not then be denied him.

PATRICK LARKIN.

Subscribed and sworn to before me, a notary public in and for the District of Columbia, this 31st day of July, 1894.

[SEAL.] E. L. WHITE,
Notary Public.

Medical certificate in case of Patrick Larkin.

909 NEW YORK AVENUE,
Washington, D. C., August 2, 1894.

This certifies that I have this day carefully examined Patrick Larkin, who enlisted in Company K, Fourth Regiment Vermont Volunteers, and find that he was severely wounded in the left foot, the ball entering below and in front of the external malleolus, passed inward, and forward, making exit behind the ball of the great toe, in its course crushing the bones of the foot so that now the arch is stiff and he walks lame all the time. He swings the foot like an artificial one. The wound was a severe one and must have disabled him for many weeks after its receipt. I find evidence of a wound of the right hand situated just behind the knuckles of the index, middle, and ring fingers. The scar drags and there was some loss of bone, but he has fair use of the fingers. I find a bruise scar (as if made by a saber or sharp instrument) on the top of the head in the median line, and under it there is a loss of bone—outer table of the skull clearly injured, as there is a decided depression along the whole length of the scar. It is impossible to say whether the inner table was injured, but taking his condition now into consideration it is my judgment that it was probably depressed on. He is quite deaf, which I should unhesitatingly ascribe to the wound of the head. His mental faculties are dull, and clearly his memory is very defective. I believe the wound of the head has resulted in a permanent injury to his brain.

N. F. GRAHAM, M. D.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 260.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 10, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. HILL presented the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the conferees on the part of the Senate, who are now considering the differences between the two Houses on House bill forty-eight hundred and sixty-four, being an Act entitled "An Act to reduce taxation, to provide revenue for the Government, and for other purposes," be, and they are hereby, requested to report to the Senate if they are likely to come to an agreement; and, if not, to report to the Senate a disagreement; and also to report the principal items of disagreement, so that the Senate may take action thereon.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 261.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 10, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. CHANDLER presented the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on Privileges and Elections be directed to inquire into the facts of the election held in the State of Alabama on the sixth of the present month of August and to acertain and report whether such election was full, fair, free, and honest, and resulted in the choice of a legislature entitled to elect a United States Senator, and that said committee as a whole, or by subcommittees, shall have power to send for persons and papers and sit during the approaching recess of Congress.

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53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 262.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 11, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. TELLER presented the following:

THE EVIDENCE OF A CROWN COLONY ON GOLD AND SILVER PRICES—BIMETALLISM IN RELATION TO AGRICULTURAL DEPRESSION.

[An address delivered before the London Chamber of Commerce, on the 24th of July, by E. E. Isemonger, colonial treasurer and member of council of the Straits Settlements.]

The great importance of the question of the rate of exchange between gold and silver is so universally admitted, and the urgency of finding a solution to the problem of how to control their divergencies is so acutely felt in many quarters, that I have been induced to accept your kind permission to address this chamber in order to lay before you some particulars of the working conditions of a Crown colony, whose currency is silver alone, hoping that what I have to say may throw some light on the effect of the fall in silver exchange upon British trade.

I refer to the colony of the Straits Settlements, which you are aware is at the extreme end of the Malay Peninsula.

This colony consists of the islands of Singapore and Penang; Malacca, province Wellesley, and the Dindings on the mainland. The area is about 1,500 square miles; the population nearly 600,000.

These settlements were formerly established by India; the island of Penang was purchased from a Malay rajah, a little over a hundred years ago, as a convenient port for the ships of the East India Company on their way to and from China. Singapore was acquired in 1819 by Sir Stamford Raffles, who recognized the great importance of its position as a naval station at the entrance of the China Sea. Malacca has a history of its own; formerly a rich Malay kingdom, the emporium of the far east, it was conquered by the Portuguese, and afterwards passed into the hands of the Dutch. From the latter we finally took it by treaty in exchange for another settlement in Sumatra in 1825. The settlements remained Indian, governed by East India Company's officers, and garrisoned by Indian troops, till 1867, when they were created a Crown colony and transferred to Imperial rule.

The general importance of the colony has since then greatly increased from various causes; the opening of the Suez Canal facilitated and largely developed its commerce. Its new relations toward the Malay states have opened up a large field for the employment of British capital and an output for its trade, and this advantage is capable of large increase when the peninsula is more developed and railways are extended. The strategical importance of Singapore as a coaling station for our navy has also greatly risen, and strong fortifications have been built to defend this.

In 1874 the experiment was tried of appointing British residents to

the neighboring native states to assist in their government. These states were, and are still, under the rule of native Malay chiefs, but until we intervened they were in a continual state of disturbance from internal disputes, generally on a question of succession. Chinese from our settlements went in to trade and to mine, and they became mixed up in these disputes and in mining quarrels with each other, commonly ending in fights which were sometimes even extended to our settlements. In fact, we suffered from having uncivilization and absence of law next door to us, and were compelled to introduce order in our own interests. The policy of establishing British residents, and of advancing money to assist the native states in the commencement of government, was initiated by Sir Andrew Clarke, of the royal engineers, who was at that time governor. This policy was continued and enlarged upon by the late Sir Frederick Weld, who took the keenest interest in the matter, and whose experience as a pioneer and statesman in New Zealand rendered him capable of taking a large view of the needs of a new country, and who wisely and liberally invested with a view to the future.

The success of the native states has surpassed all anticipations. With the establishment of British protection capital and population poured in, the principal states speedily became self-supporting, and now have a large revenue, more than sufficing their needs. The climate of the peninsula is fairly good; constant rainfall and breezes, both from sea and from the high mountains, which run down its center, keep it much cooler than would be imagined from its position in the tropics. It is very damp, but to this we owe the comparative absence of serious epidemics and also the great charm and beauty of luxuriant vegetation.

The colony is an agglomeration of all nations; their flags may be seen flying in the roadsteads, and a walk through the streets of Singapore will show the traveler specimens of almost every nationality under the sun. The Malays, the indigenous population, are an agricultural and simple people, who form but an insignificant part of the trading community. They fish, grow rice and fruit, and collect jungle produce. Amongst the foreigners those in largest number are the Chinese, who furnish the bulk of the working population, as well as of the shopkeepers.

The colony has a large export trade to Europe of produce collected from neighboring countries, such as Siam, Borneo, Sumatra, and the native states of the Malay Peninsula.

The chief products of the colony are tin, coffee, sugar, tapioca, gambier, and rattans. Tea cultivation is being tried. The tin mining in the Straits has assumed large proportions; it is the chief industry, and is said to supply 75 per cent of the consumption of the world. I can not vouch for the absolute correctness of this assertion, but it is certain that the yield is very large.

The colony has hitherto been very flourishing; its revenue, until the last few years, had steadily increased; trade prospered, and new industries sprang up. For some years past, however, in common with India, it has felt the effect of the fall in exchange, and the European mercantile community has made more than one appeal to the government on the subject of currency. During the last few years they have echoed loudly the complaints of their English brethren with regard to depression and almost stagnation of trade. At last the prospect of impending legislation to protect Indian currency led the Singapore Chamber of Commerce, in January, 1893, to request that the interests

of the Straits Settlements might be considered in connection with any proposed changes for India. This was not done. The action of India in June, which separated the rupee from silver in attempting to secure a gold basis, caused an immediate and considerable fall in the value of the dollar. The chamber of commerce again addressed the colonial government, representing the fears it entertained of further fall by the contemplated repeal of the Sherman Act, and stating that any further serious fall "could not fail to prove disastrous to the general, economic, and commercial interests of the colony," and prayed for a "consideration of such remedial measures as may secure the colony and its commerce from financial disaster."

This resulted in the appointment, by direction of the secretary of state, of a committee to consider the currency of the Straits Settlements, on which I had the honor to serve. I should begin by stating that in spite of its close connection with India, the currency in the Straits has always been the dollar, no doubt because of the convenience of this coin with surrounding trade. In the Indian days an attempt to introduce the rupee was made without success. The currency in use consists of notes of the local banks, the Mexican dollar, the Japanese yen, and subsidiary silver and copper coin furnished by the government. Representatives of all classes were examined by the committee, bankers, merchants, planters, miners, and traders of all sorts, composed of English, German, Swiss, Dutch, Chinese, Indian, and Arab. The views of the community proved to be as conflicting as their interests were varied. The evidence taken, however, was interesting and valuable, as it made clear who obtained the profits and where the losses fell from low exchange.

Fixity of exchange was desired by a large majority. Some desired a gold basis, others a silver one, but the largest interests represented desired the silver basis.

The English or European investor, and the merchant whose principal trade is in merchandise produced in gold countries, were urgent in seeking the arrest of silver from further decline, and desired to obtain fixity of exchange by establishing a gold basis of value. With the above were associated in interest the Indian and Arab traders. They showed that their trade had shrunk, that investments in the colony from England had been withdrawn, and that property in the colony was ruinously depreciated as to its gold value, and that the English capitalist could no longer be induced to invest his gold, as it was uncertain what the profit might be and as the capital itself might melt away. I will quote you the evidence of the head of one of the principal German firms:

> The settlement is suffering from the present low rate of exchange, at least the import trade. The uncertainty in exchange makes it very difficult for importers to bring that quantity of goods into the colony which they would bring if things were otherwise. At present they have to expect a loss before getting back their money for the goods they import. European capital is certainly shut out of the place—the want of capital causes trade to be stagnant. * * * I do not see that the loss caused to the import trade by the fall in exchange has been counterbalanced by the extra profit on exports. The shrinkage in the import trade directly affects the European merchant here; the improvement in the export trade does not benefit him, but only the native producer.

The strongest evidence was given on the subject of loss on British capital invested in the colony. One witness, a planter, asserted that the amount of capital which had yearly to be written off far outweighed any profit that planters could make from the enhanced value of produce. The final report of the committee pointed to the check to British

investments as perhaps the greatest loss the colony had suffered. But this is inevitable; the result of uncertain silver must be to shut British capital out of silver-using countries. Under present circumstances the planter is as unwilling to borrow gold capital as the European capitalist is to lend it. If we wish to advance in silver countries we must have silver returnable at fixed value to work with. Just as the English trader is handicapped in trade so is the English investor handicapped as to the value of property.

Then we obtained the evidence of the merchants whose preponderance of business is in the export of native produce. These were willing to follow the fortunes of silver, accepting the disadvantages of imports from Europe for the counterbalancing profits on exports. Next we came to those interested in silver alone, notably the Chinese, in whose hands is a large proportion of the trade of the colony. These people have supplanted the English investor, to their own benefit, at the loss of the latter. The Chinaman is entirely independent of gold produce. The dollar to him is practically nearly as valuable as it was in 1873. China produces his food, his clothes, his tea, and tobacco, and when luxuries from gold countries become too dear he dispenses with them.

Perhaps, however, the most amusing downright advocate of low exchange was the principal partner of the Tin Smelting Company, a large and profitable business in Singapore. He said:

I believe a rise in the value of silver would act prejudicially on the tin producers; a number of mines which produce at present prices could not produce at lower ones. All I can say is that the present low price of silver, by adding materially to the gains of the producer, enables him to work inferior mines. * * * I should say, let things go their way and find their level; if the dollar went down to 6d. we should supply the whole world with tin; nobody else would be able to compete with us.

The extreme divergence in profit and loss was, I think, most clearly shown in the two cases which I will quote. In the one we had the largest retail shopkeeper in the Straits, trading almost exclusively in English produce, and forming, on a small scale, a representative of a large number of British industries. He sells cotton, linens, silks, and clothing of all kinds, hats, umbrellas, saddlery and harness, watches, clocks, and jewelry, books and stationery, guns and ammunition, lamps and hardware, wines, provisions, groceries, furniture. The partner who gave evidence before us stated:

We are importers of European goods, and supply the greater part of the European community of Singapore and the native states. During the last year we have had to advance our prices, owing to the fall in exchange, more than ever we have had to do before. The present condition of things is causing a shrinkage of trade, and we are selling less than we ever did; many lines of goods which we have been in the habit of selling freely are a dead stock upon our hands. As regards our own trade, the present low exchange is disastrous from every point of view. It has no redeeming feature, and we have suffered considerably during the last year. It may be a coincidence, but in 1890, when exchange rose to an average rate of 3*s.* 5*d.*, we were very prosperous. * * * We have twenty Europeans in our employ, and there is now great dissatisfaction among them. They came out to the East expecting to save a little money. Most of them have to assist people at home, and they now find that they are in a worse position than they were in England. They want their pay to be raised, but our trade is shrinking; we are making less than we have ever done, and it is a very bad time to gratify their wishes. Indeed, it is a question whether we may not have to reduce our staff.

We have not been able to raise our prices so as to make the advance correspond with the fall in silver. We do not raise our prices until a fall in silver is thoroughly established. At present we have not advanced them according to the fall in exchange. We are hanging on, hoping that things will improve. We have been doing this for some time past.

In the other case we had the Chinese trader, who deals in native

produce and makes advances in silver for planting, mining, and various trading transactions, or invests money on mortgages. This is some of the evidence:

I think that although the Europeans in the colony are agitating for fixity of exchange, the Chinese, who form the greater part of the permanent population of the place, do not wish for any change in our present currency. I should say that all the Chinese inhabitants of the colony are satisfied with the present state of things.

And again:

I have given a good deal of thought to the question of our currency. The European portion of the population of the colony probably get money from England with which to carry on their mercantile pursuits, and, of course, the low rate of exchange is disadvantageous to them in paying this money back. But the Chinese producers here who export their produce benefit by the low exchange, because they get more silver for their produce. I do not think the Government would be justified in introducing a British dollar at a fixed value, or the rupee, in lieu of the Mexicans and yens which are now current. In my opinion the present state of things is advantageous to the Chinese coolie, because, as the producer gets more for his produce he can afford to pay higher wages to his coolies.

Here is a forcible contrast. The Englishman speaks of shrinking trade, lowered prices and wages, of employés thrown out of work. Let me remind you how that reacts at home on manufacturers, on factory hands, and on the people who are dependent on them. On the other hand, the Chinaman quite grasps the situation. Our loss is his gain, and he tells of brisk trade, higher prices, ability to raise wages. No wonder that he is satisfied with the present state of things, and as long as we continue cheapening silver his trade is insured, and the better he will be pleased.

The loss to the Government of the Straits Settlements by the depreciation in exchange, and the increased difficulty thrown upon it to meet its gold liabilities, is but a repetition on a small scale of the case of India. This has been so fully discussed that I need not enter into it further than to remind you that it is a matter of some importance to England. The colony was called upon to pay £100,000 a year as a contribution to the cost of its defense. It can no longer pay so much. In 1890 this amounted to $577,633. In 1893 this had risen to $745,000.

It appears to me that the views and contentions of such high authorities as Mr. Balfour, Mr. Chaplin, Mr. Lidderdale, Mr. Leonard Courtney, Sir W. Houldsworth, Sir David Barbour, and many others, are strongly supported by the testimony of the actual working of trade in our colony, as shown by the evidence I have quoted. It seems to be made clear that European trade has been retarded while that from silver countries has been stimulated. But as in a matter like this, an ounce of fact is more valuable than a pound of mere assertion, I will lay before you some figures. Various returns were carefully prepared for the committee of inquiry; amongst them one showed a comparative statement of imports from gold and silver countries, respectively, over a period of twelve years. From 1880 to 1884 the imports from gold countries averaged $33,981,000, and those from silver countries $38,617,000. In 1892 the figures were thus altered: Imports from gold countries, $36,107,000; from silver countries, $68,271,000; that is, there was an apparent increase of 2,126,000 in dollar value, while in reality there was a diminution in sterling value of £1,181,057, when the sterling difference of exchange is taken into calculation, for in the first period exchange was at 3*s.* 9*d.* to the dollar, while in 1892 it was 2*s.* 10½*d.* The imports from silver countries showed a net increase of $31,836,000. The import trade

returns of the colony, from England alone, show in the year 1890 a value of $19,874,000, at exchange 3*s.* 5¼*d.*, or £3,415,777. In 1892 this had fallen to $15,962,000, at an exchange of 2*s.* 10⅝*d.*, or £2,324,746.

The direct result of low silver upon our English manufacturing trade does not seem to be sufficiently brought home to the Englishman in England. The views of those who support gold alone seem to be confined to the advantages which gold has undoubtedly obtained by its power to purchase more cheaply the produce of silver countries, while they lose sight of, or do not grasp, the loss sustained by the inability to dispose of gold produce. We find these views put forward habitually by the press. I had the privilege of attending the International Bimetallic conference at the Mansion House in May last. Next morning I noticed in the Times a sarcastic article upon "those who love to revel in the intricacies of controversy about the currency." In another column of the same paper under the heading of "Home Markets," I observed this paragraph:

MANCHESTER, *May 2.*—Our market remains inactive and the tendency of prices continues in favor of buyers. Manufacturers' efforts to keep employed without producing goods to stock causes them considerable anxiety, as merchants act with great caution, and, where prepared to buy at all, only offer lower prices than actual cost of production. Values are irregular, and some goods are down at the lowest point of 1892, through the very limited operations of the last few months. For the small markets demand does not improve, and with the very low exchange operations for India and China are in the smallest possible compass.

Have not the "intricacies of currency" something to say to this?

When what I may call the silver man's coin is at a low exchange, he has no purchasing power in gold countries, and he ceases to trade with them. When his coin is at a high exchange, on the contrary, he is enabled to indulge in commodities from gold countries. Where does the loss fall?

To exemplify this, I might cite a case which occurred in the Straits. Before the closing of the Indian mints, the rupee and dollar had a relative corresponding silver value. A number of natives in the Straits fed on Indian rice. The action of India raised the value of the rupee in regard to the dollar. The dollar price of the Indian rice was thereby increased. The native could no longer indulge in it; he had to seek a cheaper shop. The Indian rice trade stopped and was diverted to Siam. There is no doubt about cause and effect here. The sudden fall came as a catastrophe, like a hurricane, or an earthquake, and trade was instantly upset. The same cause has been working upon English trade, only in this case gradually and imperceptibly, as the wash of the ocean wears away the shore; but trade has just as surely been diverted.

The contest between gold and silver daily assumes a more and more acute form. Increased prices of gold produce enables the silver country to produce and manufacture for itself and to sell on terms with which the gold country can not compete. I would offer you a little evidence on this point by reading to you an extract from a recent letter to the press from Mr. J. Howard Gwyther, a gentleman well known in the city of London:

Important contracts have recently been made in Singapore by large steamship companies, notably the P. and O. Steamship Company and the Messageries Maritimes, for Japanese coal. The total quantity is probably not far short of 400,000 tons and the price $5.50 per ton. At the present exchange of 2*s.* 2*d.* per dollar, and allowing that the consumption is 20 per cent above the best Welsh steam coal (on account of the difference in quality) the equivalent in sterling is about 14*s.* 2*d.* per ton. This cost as compared with the present rates from Cardiff to Singapore, viz, coal 10*s.* 6*d*

per ton and freight 9s. 3d., is a very unpleasant reminder that all export trade from Great Britian to silver-using countries is increasingly handicapped by each fall in the gold price of silver.

Another writer to that important paper, the Manchester Guardian, says:

Cotton spinning is now entering on another phase in Japan. We are within measurable distance of an active employment of some 700,000 spindles, which will produce practically double the usual quantity of yarn by working through the twenty-four hours; indeed, one of the delegates from Japan, who has lately visited India, asserts that for actual turn-out 4,000 spindles in Japan do the same work as 10,000 in Bombay. The astute financiers who are promoting these enterprises do not hesitate in stating their intention of increasing the spindles shortly to 1,000,000. The yarn produced will most assuredly be considerable in excess of what is likely to be consumed in Japan, and the mill owners hope to be able to dispose of it principally in the northern Chinese markets. The Japanese Diet has just passed a bill abolishing the export duty on yarn, to take effect from 1st July * * * They have already sent fair trial parcels through the medium of Japanese commission houses to China. * * *

The trade in English yarns is but a fraction of what was anticipated some years back, and will become less still with the advent of the machinery which is now being imported to produce the finer counts. * * * Osacca is launching out considerably in the export of cotton manufactures other than yarn, which compete perhaps more with the manufactures of the Midlands than with those of Lancashire. Only within the last few weeks I visited a small factory turning out woven underclothing to the extent of 3,500 dozens a month, exclusively for export. The orders at present exceed the producing capacity of the mill. A very good useful vest is produced at $1.72 per dozen, or, in English money, 3s. 7d. * * * When a machine patented elsewhere is obtained, and is fairly easy to imitate, such imitation is at once begun, and a machine capable of doing the same work is turned out at possibly half the cost.

Formerly Japan, in order to keep its own manufactures within its own country, levied an export duty on its fabrics. This has been stopped, and Japan is meeting our manufacturers on their own ground; China is said to be following her example.

Like the tin-smelter whom I mentioned before, producers in silver countries may well say, "Let the dollar go to 6d., and we shall be able to supply the whole world." But here, in the heart of the city of London, the men who conduct the greatest commercial transactions of the world should be fully alive to the tremendous revolution which low silver is working.

This is not a matter to be put aside as a fad or a theory. Time is an object, for every year makes the situation more difficult, and should the silver countries learn to supply themselves in all things, our trade may never be recovered.

May I hope that the evidence which I have laid before you of the direct working influence of silver in a British colony may be useful, and that the time may not be far distant when this country will act upon the opinion of Mr. Lidderdale, quoted by Mr. Balfour at the Mansion House, that—

It is absolutely necessary that the monetary function of silver should be restored, if the commerce of the world is to be carried on under healthy conditions and upon a solid and permanent basis.

U. S. SENATE,
Washington, D. C., June 11, 1894.

MY DEAR SIR: Your invitation comes at a moment when Congress requires the attendance of its members. I should be glad to accept it, for we have entered a troubled time and we need mutual counsel and support; but whatever I am to say can be said only in writing.

This is not a moment for stimulating bitterness or inflaming passions. We need all our powers of forbearance and self-control. Let us give credit to our opponents at least for good intentions, even though they give no credit to us. All Europe and all America are in trouble. Everyone admits that the world stands on the edge of revolution—social and political; but everyone shrinks from it. Neither North nor South, neither East nor West, neither capitalist nor laborer, wishes to create caste or classes or to spread misery, oppression, or violence. We all see danger before us. We all desire to avoid it. Our only dispute is about the path.

To those of us who have had chiefly in mind the struggle between silver and gold that is the question which, for the moment, presses hardest. The single gold standard seems to us to be working ruin with violence that nothing can stand. If its influence is to continue for the future at the rate of its action during the twenty years since the gold standard took possession of the world some generation, not very remote, will see in the broad continent of America only a half dozen overgrown cities keeping guard over a mass of capital and lending it out to a population of dependent laborers on the mortgage of their growing crops and unfinished handiwork. Such sights have been common enough in the world's history; but against it we all rebel. Rich and poor alike; Republicans, Democrats, Populists; labor and capital; railways, churches and colleges—all alike, and all in solid good faith, shrink from such a future as that.

This agreement is the best part of the situation. At least we can be sure that no one is deliberately conspiring against our safety. Even on the burning ground of silver and gold we agree in principle. No party and no party leader has ever approved of the single gold standard. Not one American in a hundred believes in it. We are more unanimous in hostility to it than we are on any other question in politics. A vast majority in all parties agree that the single gold standard has been, is, and will be, a national disaster of the worst kind. What is still more strange, almost the whole world sympathizes with us. Nine-tenths of mankind are hostile to the single gold standard. Our 70,000,000 people are unanimous against it. Most of the great European nations and their governments dislike it. South America rejects it. The whole of Asia knows only silver, and India, which contains five-sixths of all the subjects of the British Crown, is as hostile to it as ourselves. Yet the bankers of London have said that we must submit, and we have submitted.

So strange a spectacle has never been seen in our history. Argument, and even the compulsive proof brought by world-wide ruin, seems to be helpless against this astonishing power. What is the use of argument when we are all convinced, and when at least nine-tenths of the civilized and uncivilized world agree? England holds us to the single gold standard by the force of her capital alone, more despotically than she could hold us to her empire in 1776. The mere threat of her displeasure paralyzes mankind.

The most instructive point of all is that our great majority consists of the interests in the world which have been from time immemorial reckoned as the safest and most conservative.

The whole agricultural class; the whole class or classes of small proprietors, the farmers that make the bulk and sinew of our race; the artisan whose interests are bound up in the success of our manufactures; all these join hands with what is left of their old enemies, the

landed aristocracy of Europe, to protest against a revolution made for the benefit of money lenders alone.

On the other hand, that revolution is more radical than any which has been accomplished by professed revolutionists. Had all the despotic governments that have existed in a thousand years united their intelligence to set class against class, to breed corruption, to stimulate violence, and to shatter the foundations of society, they could have invented no device more effective than this decree which at one stroke doubled the value of capital, destroyed the value of industry, and swept the small proprietor everywhere into bankruptcy.

The whole conservative force of the world protests against so violent and despotic a change. We protest against it the more because we know enough of politics to fear the reaction against such extravagance. We see the risks to which the gold mania is exposing us. We have reason to know the popular feeling, and we do not believe that the single gold standard can be long maintained. We want real money—coin—carrying intrinsic value; yet if England succeeds in her obstinate effort to destroy the value of silver for coinage, nothing can save us from paper. England may well succeed; she seems already to be on the point of success greater than her Government wanted; and, in that case, irredeemable paper—fiat money—stares us square in the face.

Something, then, must be decided, and quickly, for delay itself is likely to be decision. The Republican party must either fix the single standard on the nation or reject it. This time we can no longer escape the issue, and whatever we do must be done openly. Where a great policy is to be entered upon the straightforward path is the best. The Republican party held power for a whole generation, and during all that time made only one fatal mistake. Under the influence of the banking interest, acting in what was then believed to be the true interest of the country, the party fell into the foreign conspiracy for making a single gold standard, and, what was worse, did it with a foreign air of conspiracy. We can not afford to repeat that error. The time has come for decision, and the decision must be open. No such moment can recur. You can act with confidence that your judgment is at least as good as that of other men. Neither the banking interest nor any other interest has, for the time, a right to claim superior knowledge or wisdom. In view of the ruin they have wrought, and the vaster ruin that they threaten, no risk that in their opinion you may seem to run can cause a moment's fear.

Even those who oppose the return of the Republican party to its old principles will admit that those principles would give it power for another generation. We need only be true to ourselves; we need only assert and maintain our own convictions and no other party, born or unborn, can take the field from us as long as we choose to hold it. No other party can represent as we do the whole national instinct; all our industries, all our popular energies; all our conservative caution. As long as the Republican party holds to its duty of representing the whole nation, it must hold sway unless something greater than the nation can be found to overthrow it.

The task before us is to restore normal activity to our industry; to break down the barriers of sectionalism; to check the increasing tension between rich and poor; to relieve agriculture, and to save the small farmer and manufacturer—in a word, to smooth away the threatening dangers of social discontent. The Republican party alone has power to do this and to carry on our society for at least one more gener-

ation without further disaster. You have only to adopt a platform of four words and to take your stand on it firmly, courageously, with honest determination to be true to it. The party has always maintained the national principle of a high tariff. You, whose deepest and best interests depend upon its success, have alone the power to add "free silver."

Very truly, yours,

J. D. CAMERON.

ANDREW B. HUMPHREY, Esq.,
Secretary National Republican League, Denver, Colo.

BIMETALLISM IN RELATION TO AGRICULTURAL DEPRESSION.

[Address by the Right Hon. Henry Chaplin, M. P., to the Scottish Chamber of Agriculture, May 30, 1894.]

The Right Hon. Henry Chaplin, M. P., ex-president of the board of agriculture, delivered an address on May 30, 1894, in the Queen Street Hall, Edinburgh, under the auspices of the Scottish Chamber of Agriculture, on "Bimetallism in relation to agricultural depression." There was a large attendance.

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THE ADDRESS.

Mr. Chairman, ladies, and gentlemen: I am very grateful, indeed, to you for the kindly welcome you have given me this afternoon, and perhaps you will allow me to begin by saying this, that when I was asked to visit Edinburgh in order to address you upon the question which is to be the subject of our discussion this afternoon, it was with somewhat mingled feelings that I received your invitation. I was very sensible of the honor you had done me, and it was a matter of the greatest satisfaction to me to think that this question was becoming a subject of such interest in Scotland, and that it was engaging the minds and the keen intelligence of so hard-headed and acute a race as the people of your country. [Applause.] But I had great diffidence in deciding to accept your invitation, and for this reason: The subject itself is one of great complexity; it is no easy task to explain it clearly to those who are uninitiated, and there is no question in the world which gives rise to such bitter animosity and to such burning controversies between the two opposing parties. The battle of the standards, as it is called, has been waging now for many years, and although bimetallists are no longer subject to the same abuse as formerly, I am happy to think that that phase of ignorance and folly has passed away, and although bimetallists, in face of overwhelming difficulties, have been steadily making way, it certainly has not lessened the animosity of their opponents. In fact, I often think that it is very fortunate for us that we do not happen to be living still in the days of the dark ages [laughter] for I am quite confident if we were, that the conveners of this meeting, probably your chairman, and most certainly the member for Sleaford, would have been burned at the stake, if that were possible, by our monometallic opponents before I could escape from Edinburgh to-morrow [laughter] for the economic heresies I am going to propound to you to-night. But be that as it may, it happens that I have had some opportunities, as a member of the gold and silver commis-

sion and otherwise, of acquiring information on this question. I can say with perfect truth that I have given much attention to it, and I have come to the deliberate conclusion that it is a matter of surpassing interest to the great industry which you represent [applause] and I own that I am heartily glad of the opportunity of pressing upon you to-night the views I hold myself upon this question, and of the truth of which I am entirely convinced. Let me add this also, gentlemen, that while it will be my object to speak, I hope, in no dogmatic spirit, and with all the diffidence which is becoming in discussing an abstruse and highly complicated question, I do most earnestly desire to press upon you with complete conviction, and as strongly and as clearly as I can, the reasons which have guided me in forming the conclusions which I have done on this vast and enormous question. For if I can convince you that the bimetallic party are right in their contentions, why, then, the magnitude and the importance of this question can not be exaggerated, for it touches, and it must and will affect, every industry and every other question you can think of. ["Hear, hear."] And now, gentlemen, without further preface, I will turn to the consideration of the subject on which you have invited me to address you. It is entitled "Bimetallism in relation to agricultural depression." That is to be the theme of our discussion to-night, and, I hope, of many subsequent discussions in your association. I think that I shall best be able to explain my general views upon the subject by submitting to you the following propositions. They are three in number, and my contentions are as follows: First, that the cause of agricultural depression is chiefly to be found in the heavy fall which has occurred in recent years, and which is still progressing in the prices of agricultural produce of almost every description, and so long as this decline in prices is continued, any real and permanent return of agricultural prosperity is practically hopeless for the future. Secondly, that this continued drop in prices has been consequent upon, and is mainly due to, the great monetary changes on the continent, which resulted in the abandonment of the bimetallic system, under which, and under the full effects of which, the entire business of this country and the world was carried on prior to 1873. And lastly, that in order to arrest this continuous and progressive fall, it is desirable to revert to the system which prevailed up till 1873, and under which the summit of agricultural and industrial prosperity was reached and successfully maintained throughout the whole of the United Kingdom. [Applause.] Now, gentlemen, that is a summary of the views which I intend to submit to you, and it is on my ability to make good the several propositions which they embrace that I shall rest my claim to your support for the opinions which I hold.

EXISTENCE OF AGRICULTURAL DEPRESSION.

Now, as to the existence of agricultural depression, I apprehend that there is no difference of opinion. It is a painful and undoubted fact, which too many of you, I fear, have realized by practical experience already, and which, so far as I know, is not disputed or denied by anyone. There are other subjects, I am well aware, that very properly engage the attention of agriculturists at the present time, in addition to the question of prices. For instance, there is the question of land tenure for one; there is the question of the amendment of the agricultural holdings act for another ["Hear!" "Hear!"], and then there is another very important subject, viz, the undue burden of the rates and

taxation upon land [applause], and so on with many others. Many of them are very important and deserving of careful consideration; and with regard to one and all of them I hope that you will always find me foremost among those who are ready to lend a willing ear to any well-considered propositions for their amendment or alteration. [Applause.] But I do not think that anyone has ever cited any of them as direct causes of agricultural depression, and probably for this reason, that we know from past experience that they have been coexistent with periods of the greatest agricultural prosperity. I submit, then, gentlemen, to begin with, that I am right in tracing agricultural depression in the main to the general fall in the prices of your produce, and that is an opinion which at all events is very widely shared. It was the purport and effect of the main and principal resolution which was unanimously adopted by the great conference which was held at St. James's Hall on the 7th and 8th of December, 1892, and in my recollection there has certainly never been a gathering of agriculturists of like importance. For that conference, of some 1,500 or 2,000 people, was composed of delegates from no less than 250 agricultural associations assembled together from all parts of the kingdom. And I may tell you this besides, that it is also the unanimous testimony of every witness who up till now has come before the royal agricultural commission—and Mr. Gilmour and Mr. Clay will bear me out in this—which is inquiring at this moment into the whole question of agricultural depression; and, indeed, it is really unnecessary to argue the point, for I do not think that there is anyone who seriously disputes it. I assume then, gentlemen, that up to this point I shall carry the assent of this meeting with me. But there is another feature in this fall of prices to which I must call marked attention, and which is perhaps of chief importance, namely, that this fall has been hitherto progressive, and no one knows or can foresee where and when it is to end. If they could, if any one of you could be assured that you had once touched bottom, and that, low as they are now, prices would remain stable and steady in the future, then it might be possible on land of reasonable quality to conduct your industry on a business-like and stable footing. Fresh arrangements could be made, a general adjustment would take place in rent, in wages, in expenses, and in all outgoings, and the business would go on as before. It would be a terrible state of things, and it would entail enormous suffering. The present generation of farmers and cultivators would most of them be ruined and pass away; but, still, if once you could be certain that prices had touched bottom, why, then, after a general readjustment, such as I describe on a certain quality of land, the industry could go on and be prosecuted in the future, always upon the condition that prices had reached their lowest level, and could be counted upon to remain steady in the future. But that, unhappily, is not the case. The fall of prices has been continuous now for many years, and it is still progressing. And in order to see this you have only to look at the evidence of what is known as the system of index numbers. Perhaps I ought to explain to you what that system is. It is a system by which you ascertain what has been the average rise or fall in the prices of a certain number of different articles over a given number of years. The method you adopt is this: You take a certain number of articles, 50 or 100 say, more or less, as many as you like, and the price of each of them at a given date is represented by a standard number, say 100. Any variations in the prices of these separate articles which occur in each year afterwards are made a note of. Thereupon you add to or subtract from the standard number in each

case, according as there has been a rise or fall, and by adding together the numbers so obtained you get a general average of what the rise or fall upon the whole of these articles has been. Many different tables of prices have been compiled in recent years upon this system by a number of eminent men. The best known of them are the tables of the Economist newspaper, of Dr. Soetbeer, of Mr. Giffen, of Dr. Sauerbeck, M. Palgrave, and others, and they all show very much the same result, namely, that the prices of commodities generally have been steadily falling now for many years. The latest table I have seen —that of Mr. Sauerbeck—shows that from 1873 to 1893 the fall has been rather over 40 per cent, and it still continues in 1894. Now, take the case of one article alone, of wheat, for instance. Wheat, in spite of everything, is still an important crop in some of our Scottish and English counties. There are some parts of Great Britain where the land is capable of growing first-rate crops of wheat, but where it is fit for very little else. Now, what has been the course of the prices of wheat for several years past? You will probably remember that when Mr. Clare Read and Mr. Albert Pell went out as subcommissioners to America for the Richmond Commission in 1879, they left America under the impression that wheat would not be sent to England from America in the future under 40*s.* a quarter. It began to fall, however, shortly afterward below that price, and it went on falling till it reached 30*s.* some two or three years ago; and I remember quite well pointing out to the great conference at St. James's Hall sixteen months ago that it had then come down to 25*s.*, and I saw no reason why it should not fall to 20*s.* Well, now, what is the latest intelligence we have on that point? On December 12, of last year I got this information from a friend, a reliable correspondent at Bristol, who is kind enough to keep me well informed upon these matters. He wrote as follows:

Several of our leading corn importers have purchased cargoes of sound, dry Russian wheat for delivery in February, March, and April next at 22*s.* 6*d.* and 23*s.* per quarter of 492 pounds, and to-day sundry cargoes and parcels of similar wheat are on offer and obtainable at 22*s.* 3*d.* The impression here is that bottom has at last been touched, but he added a word of caution, the same impression existed when wheat was 30*s.* a quarter. [Laughter.]

But I have a later communication than that from the same authority, as late as May 9, and again he writes:

My friends on the Corn Exchange tell me to-day that the record has again been beaten. River Plate wheats, f. a. q. (meaning fair average quality), are offered at 20*s.* per quarter.

And coming later still, to the 22d of this month, I received this memorandum last week from the city of London:

Messrs. Ralli Bros. sold recently red Kurrachee wheat, May and June shipments to Hull, at 19*s.* 3*d.* per 492 pounds. This was superior, and would make fair average quality worth only 18*s.* 6*d.* Similar quality three years ago would be worth 38*s.* and 39*s.* a quarter. Nineteen shillings three pence is the lowest price Messrs. Ralli Bros. have ever sold wheat at.

I will explain to you directly how it is possible it can pay anyone to send it at that price, and that is an extremely interesting subject, on which I shall have a good deal more to say. But for the moment what I am concerned to show is that the fall has been progressive up till now, and that it still continues, and I believe you will agree that by what I have told you up till now I have made that statement good. But if you do agree with me, and if I am right in this, what does it mean to you? Now, I must press this consideration very earnestly on

your attention, and I want to ask this question—When you are about to make a contract for a farm, and before you sign the lease, what is the first thing that you do? You make a calculation in order to satisfy yourself how much rent you can afford to pay after making a fair profit for yourself. This profit of course depends upon the returns which you expect from the produce which you sell; and the value of that produce depends again very largely upon the price which it commands. Well, you make your calculation on a fair—I will even say a liberal—estimate, after allowing for contingencies, of the prices of the day, and thereupon, if your calculation pleases you, you make your contract and you sign the lease. What is the next step? You enter on the farm, you spend your money, you grow your crops; and finally, you sell them. But, after you have done so, and when you come to make up your accounts upon the next occasion, you find that your returns are much less than you thought they would be when you took the farm. And why? What is the reason for this great miscalculation? Why, simply this: that there has been a further heavy fall in prices, which neither you nor anyone could possibly have foreseen. Your profits, in consequence, are gone; very possibly you find your balance on the wrong side altogether; and not only that, but you are bound in the future by your contract, which, under the new circumstances, may be a losing, and, quite possibly, a heavily losing, concern to you. And remember, gentlemen, another thing—that you in Scotland are specially affected, more than any other class of farmers, by this state of things, because I know it used to be your practice, and I believe it is so still, to take your farms on leases which are binding for a number of years, whether the conditions of the lease turn out well for you or ill. I submit then, gentlemen, and I hope you will agree with me, that so far I have been able to make good the first proposition which I laid down this afternoon, namely, that the main cause of depression is the fall in prices, that the fall has been hitherto progressive, and as long as it continues we can not expect any real and substantial improvement in the future. [Applause.]

CAUSES OF THE FALL IN PRICES.

And now I come to the second and much more disputable question, namely, what is it that has brought about this terrible and unprecedented fall? I have shown you already that, according to the index numbers, it amounts to 40 per cent as the average fall which has occurred in the prices of a great number of commodities. Well, what is the cause of it? The answer which springs at once to the lips of nine farmers out of every ten, certainly in England, is this, "foreign competition," and that the remedy is protection. Well, I used think so, too; but I can not say with truth that that is my opinion now [applause], and I say so for these reasons: There are many countries at this moment which impose extremely heavy duties on all imported agricultural produce. Half the countries on the continent, not to speak of the United States, are protectionist to-day, and yet they complain of agricultural depressions; and they are suffering from it quite as much, and, in some cases, I believe, even more, than we ourselves. ["Hear!" "hear!" and applause.] Again, you must remember that until the great monetary changes began to be felt (probably in 1875 or 1876, for they did not begin to take effect till a year or two after they were made) agriculture had enjoyed the greatest and the most unbroken period of prosperity for five and twenty years that she had ever known.

Many farmers have told me that 1874 was the last real good year they ever had, and all that time, remember, for twenty-five years previous to 1874, it was under free trade that we were living. And when I see and when I know that agricultural depression is universal, I believe, in every gold-using country at the present time, whether they be free trade or protectionist alike, that the farmers in America, from where the chief part of our imports come, the wheat-growers in particular are being daily ruined and becoming bankrupt faster even than we are in the worst parts of England, I am forced to the conclusion that free trade alone is not sufficient to account for it, and that there is some other, some deeper, and some common cause which lies at the bottom of it all. [Applause.] Well, then, others tell you that there is no mystery about the fall at all; that the thing is very simple; that vast areas of fertile and virgin soil are cultivated now in all parts of the world which formerly grew nothing; that there are more railways, cheaper freights, and greater facilities of transport everywhere; and that all that we are suffering from may be summed up in a word, viz, "overproduction." Now, I am never quite sure what is meant when people talk of overproduction. They always seem to forget *pari passu* with the increase of commodities there has been an enormous increase also in the population and in the needs and requirements of the world. If they mean by overproduction that the ratio of the increase of commodities has been out of all proportion to the increased requirements of the world, why, then, I do not believe them. And certainly no one has ever given the smallest proof of that very common but that very loose and very vague assertion. Have you ever considered what the increase of the population of the world is supposed to be every twenty years? I saw an estimate upon this point the other day. According to that estimate the increase in the population of the world every twenty years amounted to no less than 200,000,000 people, and rather more. Now, just consider what that means. Why, the whole population of England is only about 30,000,000, and therefore it is much the same as if some six or seven new Englands had been added to the world in the last twenty years. And, if they had been, you can fancy for yourselves what sort of increase in commodities would be wanted to supply them. This question, gentlemen, of overproduction was fully argued and thrashed out on the gold and silver commission five or six years ago; and if you think that any further argument is needed I must refer you to the third part of their report on this point, where, in less than half dozen paragraphs, you will find the subject dealt with in a way which has certainly not been answered up till now. ["Hear!" "Hear!"]

But, in connection with this subject, there is one table of wheat statistics which was sent to me to which I must call your attention. It is a table of the total yield of the world's wheat crop for 1891, 1892, and 1893, with the prices for each year; and it gives 304,000,000 quarters for 1891, 300,000,000 for 1892, and 288,000,000 for 1893, showing a steady decrease in production. The prices, on the other hand, are 41*s.* for 1891, 29*s.* for 1892, and 25*s.* for 1893, showing an enormous fall in price. So here you have a fall in price of 40 per cent in wheat, in spite of a decrease of production and in spite of a large increase in population and demand. [Applause.] Now, gentlemen, I say that in the face of figures such as these—and I have every reason to believe that they are fully as trustworthy as any of the statistics on which we are accustomed to rely—it is idle to talk of the fall in prices being due to nothing but overproduction. No, sir, the more you sift, and the more closely you examine into this question, you will find that there is only one thing

which is able to sufficiently account for the enormous and unprecedented change which has occurred in prices during the last twenty years; and that is the change which has occurred, not in production nor in commodities, but in the value of money itself ["Hear, hear"], and which I believe to be entirely due to the great monetary revolution which occurred some fifteen or twenty years ago upon the Continent of Europe, and to the abandonment of the bimetallic system by which it was accompanied at that time. [Applause.]

THE MONETARY CHANGES.

And now I must explain, as briefly as I can, what those monetary changes were; what the bimetallic system was; and what the effect of its abandonment have been upon yourselves and on your industry in particular, as well as on the world at large. Now, some people are under the impression, I believe, that bimetallism is something new. It is nothing of the kind; it is as old as the history of the world. Gold and silver formed the joint money of the world since the earliest ages of man. That is why they are called the precious metals, and bimetallism itself only ceased twenty years ago. Let me explain as shortly as I can what bimetallism was. At present, as you know, the law provides that if you, or I, or anyone, take gold to the English mint, they are bound to receive it in any quantity, and to return it to you coined at the rate or price of £3 17*s.* and a fraction per ounce. It then becomes legal-tender money; that is to say, money with which you can legally discharge your debts. Well, if the mint was also bound by law to take silver in precisely the same way, and return it to you coined at a fixed rate or price, say 2*s.* 6*d.* or 3*s.*, or any other price that might be fixed per ounce, and if it became likewise legal-tender money in which you could pay debts, that would be bimetallism. But that is exactly what the law was in France and in half a dozen other countries on the Continent, as well as in the United States of America, prior to 1873; the rate at which silver was coined was fixed at that time at about 5*s.* an ounce, which made the ratio between the metals about 15½ to 1; and this system, which I have described to you, was only abandoned at the date that I have named. And whatever else anyone may think or say upon this subject, it certainly is a striking and remarkable coincidence that ever since the change began to take effect we have been passing through a period of prolonged and unexampled depression in agricultural and every other industry, both in this and every other gold-using country in the world that you could mention. [Applause.] Now, the effects of that law were as follows: It gave to silver in the first place, so far as the law was concerned, a position of equality with gold. Now, just consider what that means. The law created a universal and unlimited demand for silver, exactly as it now creates a similar demand for gold. All the gold that can be found in the world possesses a value which is conferred upon it by the law, as, if I may so describe it, "potential money." And that was also the position of silver prior to 1873. It possessed a value conferred upon it by the law, and all the silver that could be found was equally "potential money," exactly like the gold. Another effect was this, that the relative value of gold and silver never varied, but remained practically steady for a vast number of years prior to 1873, for nobody possessing silver would ever part with it for a lower price than he could get at any moment from any of the mints of those countries that I have named. Thirdly, although the bimetallic law *itself* was confined to the countries I referred to, the effects of it were

felt and were universal in all the countries of the world in keeping the relative values of gold and silver steady. For instance, you hear a great deal nowadays about the rupee in India, and how greatly it has fallen; but up to 1873 it was always worth just about 2*s.*, without any change whatever. You never heard of any difficulties then about your Indian rupee, and if there was any variation at all it was only fractional. But since 1873 the rupee has fallen so enormously that it has been the source of endless trouble and difficulty to our Indian finance, and at the present moment it has fallen till it is worth only about 1*s.* 1*d.*; and more than that, I can tell you, gentlemen, that Indian finance was never in so desperate a mess as it is in at present. [Applause.] And you will hear a good deal more of that unless I am much mistaken before the present session is over. And, fourthly, the regular addition of all this silver, as well as gold, to the volume of legal-tender money in the world steadily increased it, and had the same effect as if you added double the quantity of gold. It was just sufficient to enable the increased volume of money to keep pace in proportion with the increase of commodities in the world, and therefore to keep prices from altering very much either one way or the other. [Applause.] But in 1873 all this was changed. Owing to reasons into which I need not enter now—for they are all on record, and I want to curtail my statement as much as possible—the mints of all these countries were closed to the free coinage of silver in either 1873 or the beginning of 1874. Silver lost the position which up till then it had occupied in conjunction with gold; it was deprived of the right of free coinage, and bimetallism from that moment ceased to exist. The change began by the attempt of Germany, who up till then had had a silver standard, to change it into a gold one. She was tempted to do this by the opportunity which was afforded by the payment to her of the war indemnity by France, amounting to £200,000,000, after the Franco-Prussian war. But there is every reason to believe—I have myself from many sources the strongest reasons for believing—that this policy was adopted by its authors without foreseeing in the least the enormous and disastrous consequences that it would lead to; I believe they have regretted it ever since; and as a matter of fact a royal commission is sitting at this moment in Germany for the purpose of seeing what can be done now in order to repair the mischiefs which have followed upon these changes. However, the thing was done. The great monetary changes were carried out. And what I have next to explain to you is the effect and the results they have produced. Now, the chief results were two; and the first of them was this: The dislocation of silver greatly increased the demand for gold, and it put a heavy strain upon the gold stocks of the world. There was no corresponding increase in the supply, and the natural and inevitable consequence was to increase the value of that metal. In other words, it caused the appreciation of gold. But the appreciation of gold is only another word for a fall in prices, and as you know to your cost, that is exactly what has occurred, and that has been the first effect of the great monetary changes upon you. But there is also a second result of equal or, perhaps, to you of even more importance. Silver having been deprived of the legal position which, in common with gold, it had held till then, and the link between the metals being gone, silver became subject at once to all the influences which affect other commodities, and both silver and commodities, measured in gold, fell in price together. This created at once a divergence in the old relative value of the metals, and that divergence has steadily widened until the ratio between gold and silver to-day is something like 30 to 1 instead of 15½ to 1, which it

used to be before. Now, it is this divergence which explains the fact—and I told you I would refer to this again—that certain countries are able to send wheat to England at a profit even at the price of 19*s.* or 20*s.* a quarter. [Applause.] They are the countries which use silver as their standard, like India, for instance, with the rupee. And the first thing you must bear in mind is this, that, although the rupee has fallen so much in relation to gold, in relation to commodities in India it has not fallen at all. In other words, the same number of rupees will exchange no longer for the same amount of gold, but they will exchange for in India—i. e., they will purchase as much—of any commodity or commodities in India as they ever did before. [Applause.] You will see the effects of this upon your wheat in Great Britain in a moment. When the price of wheat was £2 a quarter, and the rupee was worth 2*s.*, the Indian grower of wheat got 20 rupees for his quarter, because 20 rupees at that time exchanged for 40*s.* Now, the price of wheat has dropped to £1 a quarter, but the Indian grower still gets 20 rupees, because the rupee has also fallen to 1*s.*, and at that rate £1 in gold will exchange for as much as £2 did before. ["Hear, hear."] The same thing happens in the case of every other article which we produce in England which is the subject of competition with silver-using countries. It is the exchange, as it is called, which enables the silver-using countries to take the present prices, and if silver continues to fall further, I say to you to night, as I said to the conference in St. James' Hall, I see no reason in the world why the price of wheat should not continue to fall indefinitely in the future. ["Hear, hear."] You will perceive, then, that, according to my views, you are suffering from two causes, both of which I trace to the great monetary changes of twenty years ago, and which are becoming more and more injurious every day. The appreciation of gold is the first cause; the wide divergence which has taken place in the relative value of the metals is the second cause, and a consequence of the first. The former, as I have already stated, is only another word for a general fall in prices. The second means an additional and further fall in the case of those particular articles which are the subject of competition with silver-using countries. [Applause.] Now, I do not know how far you have been able to follow me in this, or if I have convinced you, but at least I think you will agree that I have said enough to show that this is a serious question which deserves your most earnest and thoughtful consideration. [Applause.]

THE QUESTION OF RENTS.

And now, gentlemen, I come to the final proposition, namely, the remedy which we propose, the remedy for agricultural depression. I know quite well that in some parts of Great Britain there are those who think that relief can only be given, and must be given, by a further reduction of rents, and in individual cases, and where the land is good, I am not prepared to say that that would not give the relief, or part of the relief, that is required. But there are two things you must bear in mind in connection with that question so far as general agricultural depression is concerned all over the country. In the first place, enormous reductions of rent in some parts of Great Britain have already been made. On the agricultural commission we hear of reductions varying from 20 to 40, and 50, and even 80 per cent, and of other cases where there is no rent at all, and where the land has gone absolutely out of cultivation altogether. But in spite of these redu-

tions, heavy as they are, agricultural depression still continues with, apparently, no less severity than before. ["Hear, hear."] The second thing I want you to bear in mind is that these reductions in rent might possibly be a general remedy to some extent if all the land throughout Great Britain was land of the same quality. But that is not the case. Land in Great Britain, generally speaking, may be roughly divided into three classes. There is the good land; there is the moderate land; there is the bad land. Well, the bad land has ceased to pay rent altogether [applause] and much of it now has gone out of cultivation. The moderate land, I am sorry to say, in some cases is beginning to go now, and we have arrived at such a pitch that any further reduction of rents at the present moment means merely this, that more and more of the land will go steadily out of cultivation. It is impossible, therefore, that the reduction of rent can be described as an effective remedy for general agricultural depression.

THE REMEDY.

No, gentlemen, the real remedy in my opinion is simply to revert to the system which prevailed prior to 1873. For this purpose an international arrangement would be necessary, and some people will tell you that it is hopeless to get the nations to agree, and they point to the abortive conference held last year at Brussels in support of that contention. Well, that is not my opinion. I have done what, I dare say, very few people have done. I have carefully read the whole of the proceedings at that conference, and nothing is more clear to me than this, that it was nothing but the action of the English delegates ["Hear, hear," and applause], or some of them, which broke up the conference at Brussels. ["Hear, hear."] I am confirmed in that opinion by what has happened since. Germany was supposed to be the greatest obstacle. What is the opinion of Germany? Count Caprivi was reproached in the German Parliament last December for the conduct of the German delegates at the conference. What was his reply? He said that "the Government, seeing that the conference was doomed to failure, had been unwilling to entangle Germany in the fiasco." And why was it doomed to failure? He went on to say, "Without Great Britain nothing could be done, and under the present prime minister (viz, Mr. Gladstone) there was no chance of anything being attempted." Since then, as I have told you, during the present year Germany has appointed a commission of her own. Well, France is now, as she always has been, bimetallic; and what about the United States? So important is the subject in the view of President Cleveland, that he has asked and has obtained from Congress general powers to summon another international conference whenever he pleases; and you may take it from me as certain that England is the great impediment at present to this great reform, and it is in England that we shall have to overcome the opposition.

THE OBJECTIONS TO BIMETALLISM.

Now, what are the usual objections that are urged to our views? I have been asked by some correspondents to reply to one or two of them, and I will do so. The first, the old stock argument, is this: You can not maintain a fixed ratio between gold and silver any more than you can between any two other commodities. You can not interfere with the *laws of* supply and demand. The thing is impracticable;

it is, in fact, a bimetallic dream. Now, our opponents appear to be still in blissful ignorance of what is perhaps the most elementary fact of our contention, viz, that the bimetallic theory affords, perhaps, the most perfect and most striking instance of the operation of those laws in a specially instructive case; and I believe I am right in saying that that is the opinion of every teacher of political economy in England at the present time. [Applause.] Mind you, this is very ancient history; but so many of our critics have so little learnt their lesson that I will repeat one argument on the subject, and I think it will suffice. What we say is this, that the law can enact that either or both of the metals shall be legal tender for debt. That we know, because it has been done effectually already. And thereby the law creates what is and what has been the chief demand for the precious metals, namely, for the purposes of money. The law can also enact that they shall be legal tender at a given ratio between the two, for this also has been done, and done effectively in the past. Now comes the question, How is the ratio maintained? The answer to this question is that debtors will always try to pay their debts in the cheapest way they can; that is to say, in which ever metal is cheapest. What do those debts amount to? The indebtedness of the world is estimated at something between £20,000,000,000 and £30,000,000,000. Consequently, if either metal falls, for any reason, below the legal ratio, there will be an immediate increase in the demand upon it for the purpose of the payment of debt. The increased demand produces its natural effect. The metal which has shown the smallest tendency to fall returns to the normal, or rather, I should say, the legal level. Formerly it was gold (at the time of the great gold discoveries forty years ago). More recently it has been silver, the production of which of late has much increased, although in nothing like the same proportion as the production of gold increased in former days. And in this way an automatic action is set up, which not only keeps the relative value of the metals steady, but makes it impossible, as we contend, for them to vary, except within the smallest limits. If a great increase in either metal should occur and begin to have the least effect the parity is immediately restored by the operation of the natural law. And this explains at once the practical stability of the ratio during the long periods antecedent to 1873, when the variation in the production of the metals was infinitely greater than it has been ever since then. I feel that I ought to apologize for repeating this fundamental argument in replying to the antiquated objections with which we are assailed; but if I had not done so I was afraid that I should be attacked like your distinguished countryman, Mr. Arthur Balfour [applause], in the city, not very long ago, for not answering the objections which were advanced against bimetallism. The next objection that I hear is this:

Even if you could maintain a ratio you never could agree as to what the ratio should be.

My answer, gentlemen, is this: Bimetallist would accept any ratio rather than go on as we are doing at the present time. ["Hear, hear."] But what the final decision as to ratio should be is, obviously, a matter of agreement among all the different people who are concerned. My own opinion upon that point is and always has been this, it is not so important as people think, and for this reason, so sensitive is silver that the moment a bimetallic settlement was really on the tapis the market price of silver would conform to any ratio that was fixed long before it was enacted by any positive legislation. [Applause.]

THE QUESTION OF SILVER PRODUCTION.

But then I hear it said that even if you could agree upon the ratio, the enormous quantities of silver that can be produced even at the present price must inevitably break it. Well, to begin with, I have my doubts, as to this illimitable production. I am aware of no facts and no information to confirm the statement. Certainly there are none to be found in the whole of the evidence before the conference at Brussels. But the answer to that argument is this: "What is of importance is not the annual output of the metals, but the total amount of the mass of each of them which is already in existence." ["Hear!" "Hear!"] This is an idea I want you to carry away in your minds. The annual output now is, what shall I say, probably something about £30,000,000 a year of each. Perhaps it is even more than that of silver. But what is the existing mass? I turn to the report of the gold and silver commission. There I find that the estimate of the mass of gold in existence in the world five years ago is £1,550,000,000 or, in round numbers, say £1,600,000,000. Silver, on the other hand, is estimated at a little under £2,000,000,000. Now, supposing that the present annual production of silver was doubled, what does it matter whether you add 30,000,000 a year or 60,000,000 a year to the existing mass? You have 2,060,000,000 of silver instead of 2,030,000,000 as the mass of silver in the world. Why, the difference is fractional—barely 1½ per cent. That is also the reply to a question I have been asked to answer by a gentleman well known to you [Mr. Lindsay], who was president of your chamber. Mr. Lindsay asked me this question—"If the effect of monet zing silver be to enhance the value of that metal, will this not lead to a still further increase in its production, and consequent augmentation of the difficulty? The Broken Hill Proprietary Company produces about 20 per cent of the total supply in the world; and it is paying now—even at the present price—an enormous dividend." To that question I answer, No. I do not think it will affect it in the least. Twenty per cent of the total annual output of silver is only an infinitesimal addition to the mass already in existence. You must remember that the metals differ from almost all other commodities in this respect—that they do not perish, and they are not annually consumed. A crop of wheat, for instance, or the greatest part of it is consumed every year. A great increase or decrease in the annual crop of wheat makes all the difference in the world. But the mass of gold and silver is the accumulation of centuries. Some of the gold we are using now, however often it has been recoined, existed probably in the days of Solomon, or the Pharaohs [laughter] and the annual additions to this enormous mass are comparatively unimportant. That is likewise the answer to another very common notion—namely, that our present difficulties will be solved by the increasing output of gold in South Africa. No doubt they are increasing every year. I hope they will continue to increase. But unless they do so in proportions of which I do not see any prospect, they will be absolutely insufficient to redress the mischief which is going on at present. Again, I hear it said that if you did this you would be making the fortunes of the owners of silver mines in Mexico, in America, and in other places of the world. Well, perhaps, you would. But would any one of you refuse to receive gold for any reason such as that? I know a gentleman now in London who is said to have made a fortune of many millions within the last few years from the gold mines in South Africa. Well, you welcome all that he can send

you. Why should you refuse the silver? Do we starve or freeze our selves in the winter, in order to prevent the owners of coal mines from becoming rich? [Laughter.] It is really quite the weakest and the silliest of all the arguments I know. [Laughter and applause.] There is another, I admit, which is deserving of much more serious attention. We are the greatest creditor nation in the world. Why should we take payment for our debts in what is the least valuable metal? My reply is this—If bimetallists are right, there can be no such thing as a cheaper or a dearer metal. ["Hear!" "Hear!"] Their relative value will remain stable, and each of them will perform all the functions of the other. What may happen, quite possibly, is this. There may be some increase in prices, and as we receive payment for our foreign debt in produce from other countries, we may get something less in produce than we got before. But look at the other side of the picture for a moment. Is it just, is it wise, for the creditor to push his debtor into such a corner, as we are doing now, by monetary changes which enormously increase the burden of his debt. ["Hear!" "Hear!"] I do not care whether it is an individual or whether it is a nation. I ask them both the same question.

FOREIGN INVESTMENTS.

What is the position of many of our investments in foreign countries at this moment? Take American railways. I hope in Scotland there is not much money invested in American railways. [Laughter.] What about the shares of the Union and Pacific Railway, extending over 9,000 miles? They used to be above par; to-day, I am told, they are 14. And, more than that, I hear that one-third of all the railways in America are at this moment in the hands of the receiver. How much have the people of this creditor nation invested in American railways I should like to know. Do they benefit by the present state of things? Well, what about American mortgages upon land? Are investments in that quarter particularly flourishing just now? From all I hear of American land and the condition of American farmers, particularly in the West, owing to the fall in prices, I should not be very satisfied about any investments of my own in American mortgages upon land if I had any, which happily I have not. [Laughter.] Again, look at the position in Australia. You know what has happened to investors there. I doubt if they perceive just now the great advantage to the creditor nation of constantly appreciating gold. In fact, creditors at this moment in all parts of the world are in the greatest danger, where it is not gone already, of losing their capital, or much of their capital, altogether. And why? Because of the great and general fall in prices all over the world, due to the appreciation of gold, which has made so many different enterprises unprofitable, and some of them bankrupt altogether, in recent years.

THE BANK RESERVE.

There is one other question only to which I think it necessary or desirable to refer, and that is the argument deduced from the unusually large amount of gold at present in the Bank of England. What is the meaning, I am asked, of scarcity or "appreciation" when, as a matter of fact, there is a plethora of gold lying idle at this moment in London? So there may be. It is the strongest confirmation of my view. ["Hear, hear."] And if I am asked how the two conditions can exist together,

I say that the one is to a large extent the consequence of the other ["Hear, hear"]; people dare not invest their money in industry or enterprise to-day, because in the face of constantly falling prices the return is so uncertain. Gold itself is steadily increasing every day in value, and it is better and safer to sit tight and hold it, unless you can lend it upon the very best security. [Applause.] Very many years ago Lord Bacon wrote as follows, and it may not be inappropriate to quote it at an agricultural meeting like the present: "Money," he wrote, "is like muck, of no use unless it be spread." [Laughter and applause.] Every farmer in Scotland, I am sure, will understand the simile. If you leave your manure gathered in a heap it is useless and barren and fertilizes nothing till it is spread upon the land. But with wheat at 19 shillings a quarter you do not see your way to a return if you go to great expense in manuring heavily for your crop; and so with the plethora of gold in London lying idle in the coffers of the rich. It is barren for good as long as it remains there. But it never will be spread in promoting and fertilizing industry and enterprise as long as we remain confronted with perpetually falling prices, and, therefore, an absolutely uncertain future. [Applause.] Now, gentlemen, I must bring my observations to a close as quickly as I can. I really can not thank you sufficiently, gentlemen, for your attention and the extraordinary patience and kindness you have shown me during what must necessarily have been, I fear, a long and very tedious statement ["No, no"] on a naturally dry and uninviting topic. I have done my best to put the merits of the question as clearly as I can before you. [Applause.] What are its prospects for the future? I regard them, gentlemen, for my own part, as full of promise and as full of hope. It is no small matter, in my judgment, that you have begun to show interest in this question here in Scotland. I know, and I am certain, that great progress has recently been made in London. We had a most important international congress on this subject in the city not many days ago, and a much less important matter in the House of Commons, namely, a count out the same evening on this question [laughter], and, in order to allay the apprehensions of friends abroad and to disappoint our foes at home, I wish to say one single word on this incident. To people who understand the House of Commons it is of absolute insignificance. A second place at an evening sitting, when no division could be taken, was not a fitting opportunity to proceed with an important motion. To anyone acquainted with parliamentary tactics it was an occasion which invited a count out. It was against the wishes and advice of many good friends of the movement that the discussion was attempted, and it ended with a result which was inevitable and which most people might foresee. But from all I hear from every other quarter the interest in this question most undoubtedly is steadily and widely spreading. The city is beginning to listen with attention; Lancashire and her artisans have long been warm supporters; one distinguished Scotchman, the present leader of the opposition [applause] is its chief and its most stalwart champion; and if I look toward the other side of politics what do I find from another Scotchman—Lord Roseberry—the present prime minister of England? [Applause.] I was looking at a speech of his only yesterday afternoon, and this is what I find he said. It was delivered four or five years ago to a great audience in England. You have, he told them, three great topics as to which you will have to make up your minds. The first, he said, was Ireland; but the second, and one of the most pressing, is the question of your currency. ["Hear, hear."] What the *prime minister's* present views may be I do not know [laughter]

and I do not presume to say, but I am encouraged by all that I have seen of Scotland, and all that I have heard in the few hours I have been in Edinburgh to-day, to cherish the hope and the belief that it may be reserved for Scotchmen, by their attitude to turn the scale upon this vast and interesting question, with regard to which I can assure you, gentlemen, that in my heart and in my conscience I believe, that it is of superlative importance, not only to the great industry which you yourselves especially represent, but to all the workers and producers, and to all productive industry, not only in your well-beloved Scotland, but throughout the whole of the civilized world. [Loud and prolonged applause.]

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 263.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 11, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. CHANDLER presented the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on Privileges and Elections be directed to inquire into the facts of the election held in the State of Alabama on the sixth of the present month of August and to ascertain and report whether such election was full, fair, free, and honest, and resulted in the choice of a legislature entitled to elect a United States Senator, and that said committee as a whole, or by subcommittees, shall have power to send for persons and papers and sit during the approaching recess of Congress.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 264.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 13, 1894.—Reported by Mr. BLACKBURN, from the Committee on Rules, and referred to the Committee to Audit and Control the Contingent Expenses of the Senate.

AUGUST 13, 1894.—Reported by Mr. CAMDEN, from the Committee to Audit and Control the Contingent Expenses of the Senate, without amendment, and ordered to be printed.

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on Rules be instructed to inquire and report to the Senate what revision of, or amendments to, the rules, if any, should be adopted to secure a more efficient and satisfactory disposition of the business of the Senate, and for this purpose the said Committee on Rules is authorized to sit during the coming vacation, and any expense incident thereto shall be paid out of the contingent fund of the Senate, and report also a code of joint rules for the government of the two Houses, if in their opinion it is expedient to do so.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 265.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 15, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

MR. KYLE presented the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That during the recess of Congress no intoxicating liquors shall be sold or used in the Senate wing of the Capitol building; and the Capitol police board is hereby authorized and directed to enforce this resolution.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 267.

ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

LIBRARIAN OF CONGRESS,

EXHIBITING

THE PROGRESS OF THE LIBRARY

DURING THE

CALENDAR YEAR 1893.

AUGUST 16, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1894

ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

LIBRARIAN OF CONGRESS.

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS,
Washington, August 10, 1894.

The undersigned submits herewith an account of the progress of the Library and the statistics of the copyright business under his charge during the calendar year closing December 31, 1893.

The report heretofore made with each advancing year of the difficulties attending any complete enumeration of the overcrowded collections of the Library must be repeated here, with the qualification that, while the obstructions have increased, the prospect of relief is to be realized at a period not now remote. The estimated contents of the Library in all the apartments occupied for its storage make an aggregate of 695,880 volumes, exclusive of about 223,000 pamphlets. The increase in the year 1893 has been 18,594 volumes. It should be noted that many copyright publications, though necessarily classed as "books" in the tables of copyright deposits, are not reckoned as volumes added to the Library.

In the copyright department an increase has still to be recorded, notwithstanding the business depression, which can not have failed to affect the publishing activities of the country.

Any deficiency in the production of books has been more than made up by increased entries of musical compositions and works of graphic art, the multiplication of both classes of publications having been stimulated by the World's Fair of 1893, at Chicago, and by the operation of the international copyright law. The number of copyright entries during the year were 58,956, including all classes of publications, being an increase of 4,221 over the entries of 1892. The full amount of copyright fees received and paid into the Treasury was $46,728.75, being an increase of $2,009.91 over the receipts of the year preceding.

The table following exhibits the number and classification of copyright entries:

Number of articles entered in 1893.

Books	18,498
Periodicals	11,094
Musical compositions	16,273
Dramatic compositions	580
Photographs	4,920
Engravings	1,521
Lithographs	918
Chromos	1,810
Prints and cuts	701
Designs and drawings	460
Paintings	202
Maps	1,814
Charts	165
Total	58,956

The copyright publications deposited were approximately as follows:

Number of copyright articles received in 1893.

Books	27,260
Periodicals	20,172
Musical compositions	29,604
Dramatic compositions	520
Photographs	9,514
Engravings	1,770
Lithographs	1,200
Chromos	410
Prints and cuts	1,944
Designs and drawings	188
Maps	2,805
Charts	572
Total	95,360

As the law requires two copies of each publication entered, to complete the copyright, the actual additions to the stores of copyright publications during the year approximated 47,680 articles.

The weekly catalogue required by law of the copyright publications actually deposited in the office of the Librarian of Congress has been promptly furnished to the Treasury Department, notwithstanding the very inadequate clerical force hitherto allowed.

The number of foreign governments thus far embraced under the provisions of the international copyright act of 1891 is eight, namely: Great Britain, France, Germany, Italy, Switzerland, Belgium, Portugal, and Denmark. While there has been a less extended publication in the United States of foreign books under its provisions than had been anticipated, there is a large and constantly increasing number of

foreign musical compositions and works of art entered under international copyright.

The steady and rapid progress in the construction of the new building for the accommodation of the Congressional Library is highly gratifying, and is set forth in detail in the annual reports of the Chief of Engineers to Congress.

AINSWORTH R. SPOFFORD,
Librarian of Congress.

Hon. ROGER Q. MILLS,
Chairman of the Joint Committee on the Library.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 268.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 17, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. MURPHY presented the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That in view of the statement in the letter of the honorable John G. Carlisle, Secretary of the Treasury, dated Washington, August fifteenth, eighteen hundred and ninety-four, addressed to honorable I. G. Harris, acting chairman of the Finance Committee, that the estimated surplus revenue for the year will not exceed fifteen million dollars, it is the judgment of the Senate that no further legislation or change in the revenue laws should be made at this session.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 269.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 17, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. HARRIS presented the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the vacancy in the Finance Committee of the Senate, occasioned by the death of the late Senator Vance, be filled by the appointment of the honorable Stephen M. White, a Senator from the State of California.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 270.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 17, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. GRAY presented the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on Finance be instructed to report without delay to the Senate the House bill numbered seventy-nine hundred and seventy-one, referred to it, so amended as to provide for a revenue duty on all sugar without any differential duty on refined sugar.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 271.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 18, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. LINDSAY presented the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That it is the sense of the Senate that this Congress should not adjourn until a bill shall have been passed removing and discontinuing all import duties on refined or discolored sugars that operate directly or indirectly for the benefit of the so-called sugar trust, and that the Committee on Finance, with all possible speed, report to the Senate what profit or revenue will probably inure under the revenue bill now in the hands of the President to the alcohol or whisky trust, and to the distillers of the United States.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 272.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 18, 1894.—Referred to the Select Committee on Additional Accommodations for the Library of Congress and ordered to be printed.

Mr. TURPIE, for Mr. VORHEES, presented the following

RESOLUTION:

Resolved, That the Committee on Additional Accommodations for the Library of Congress be instructed to inquire what expenditures, if any, are authorized by existing law for works of statuary, in connection with the new Library building, and whether any contracts or expenditures have been made for such works, and that said committee have leave to report at any time on said subject to the Senate.

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 273.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 18, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. CHANDLER presented the following

AMENDMENT

To the resolution submitted by Mr. LINDSAY:

Strike out all after the word "until" and add: "all the provisions of House bill forty-eight hundred and sixty-four relative to duties on imports, however entitled and by whatever name known or called, and whenever and wherever it may be found, which finally passed the House of Representatives on the thirteenth day of August, eighteen hundred and ninety-four, are repealed, annulled, canceled, and made void and of no effect."

O

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. } SENATE. { MIS. DOC. No. 275.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 24, 1894.—Ordered to be printed.

Mr. COCKRELL presented the following

STATEMENT RELATING TO THE "RATES OF DUTY IMPOSED BY COUNTRIES EXPORTING COAL AND IRON ORE TO THE UNITED STATES ON SUCH ARTICLES WHEN IMPORTED INTO THOSE COUNTRIES."

TREASURY DEPARTMENT,
BUREAU OF STATISTICS,
Washington, D. C., August 17, 1894.

SIR: I transmit herewith such information as I have been able to procure in reply to the inquiries contained in your communication of the 13th instant in regard to imports and exports of bituminous coal and imports of iron ore.

Respectfully, yours,

J. N. WHITNEY,
Acting Chief of Bureau.

Hon. F. M. COCKRELL,
U. S. Senate.

Quantities and values of iron ore imported into the United States during the years 1875 to 1894, inclusive.

	1875.*		1876.*		1877.*		1878.*	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Tons.		*Tons.*		*Tons.*		*Tons.*	
France								
United Kingdom:								
England								
Scotland								
Ireland								
Greece								
Italy								
Portugal								
Spain								
Turkey								
French Africa								
Cuba								
Dominion of Canada								
All other countries								
Total		$146.659		$52,841		$82,947	29,765	$62,787

*Not enumerated prior to 1879.

Quantities and values of iron ore imported into the United States during the years 1875 to 1894, inclusive—Continued.

	1879.		1880.		1881.		1882.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Tons.		*Tons.*		*Tons.*		*Tons.*	
France	890	$1,940	10,277	$26,865	23,289	$48,645	31,276	$82,572
United Kingdom:								
England	18,828	54,789	79,319	285,313	64,228	260,356	39,148	148,436
Scotland	353	787	6	21	2,526	11,653	.....	.....
Ireland	5,867	12,958	12,164	29,073	10,640	27,378	10,181	23,857
Greece	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Italy	9,008	20,786	33,755	88,928	65,229	179,433	54,349	164,503
Portugal	.....	.....	8,284	22,621	10,369	23,713	31,237	96,160
Spain	80,044	154,211	184,807	314,074	263,575	604,790	246,695	568,277
Turkey	.....	.....	1,800	3,917	11,706	50,725	3,622	80,030
French Africa	31,727	88,159	113,222	336,758	111,345	348,280	111,580	312,672
Cuba	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Dominion of Canada	3,904	8,943	29,297	79,386	44,177	132,218	46,453	150,511
All other countries	200	461	2,131	6,005	13,989	36,694	5,666	60,569
Total	150,821	343,034	425,012	1,192,961	621,073	1,723,885	580,207	1,687,677

	1883.		1884.		1885.		1886.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Tons.		*Tons.*		*Tons.*		*Tons.*	
France	16,933	$47,632	4,566	$18,410	4,674	$14,700	3,877	$7,363
United Kingdom:								
England	23,247	90,810	7,355	23,873	11,890	34,266	15,033	50,765
Scotland	.....	.....	.....	.....	204	814	16	669
Ireland	2,134	5,589	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Greece	2,200	2,972	12,530	18,615	.....	.....	7,700	12,419
Italy	47,147	141,356	57,664	154,857	16,213	40,125	20,982	44,885
Portugal	12,926	41,889	6,299	13,942	6,684	15,153	8,716	19,235
Spain	343,337	770,988	374,943	829,423	243,906	527,728	428,586	772,027
Turkey	1,508	3,865	4,875	76,601	.....	.....	7,687	51,691
French Africa	108,100	299,786	56,448	109,920	25,360	48,146	107,366	169,565
Cuba	.....	.....	.....	.....	28,209	40,948	51,268	76,670
Dominion of Canada	46,137	140,927	29,125	71,900	49,722	174,002	8,104	25,731
All other countries	3,507	40,783	1	5	39,008	57,714	41,908	75,013
Total	607,176	1,586,597	553,806	1,317,546	425,870	953,596	701,243	1,306,032

	1887.		1888.		1889.		1890.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Tons.		*Tons.*		*Tons.*		*Tons.*	
France	5,218	$14,935	7,289	$19,187	6,804	$18,925	3,316	$7,200
United Kingdom:								
England	72,546	225,540	56,090	179,338	29,216	62,937	61,084	143,475
Scotland	13	516	.....	.....	.....	.....	3,994	12,618
Ireland	1,250	2,153	2,450	7,154	.....	.....	.....	.....
Greece	44,173	65,270	25,707	35,411	13,480	17,644	43,609	77,469
Italy	114,423	241,025	98,343	211,889	66,812	167,876	117,245	304,030
Portugal	10,122	20,591	3,181	6,975	5,230	11,582	12,839	28,947
Spain	522,719	855,896	416,138	701,169	190,460	418,317	482,551	974,308
Turkey	15,302	48,447	11,897	61,608	5,470	50,665	.....	.....
French Africa	215,760	364,703	163,496	290,364	78,137	143,468	115,428	219,427
Cuba	109,928	200,723	117,504	258,728	225,525	537,478	287,322	566,417
Dominion of Canada	28,452	65,350	13,380	40,528	26,030	62,530	13,687	33,113
All other countries	6,868	13,208	4,169	5,683	4,868	16,236	16,320	48,710
Total	1,141,774	2,118,357	919,644	1,818,034	652,032	1,507,658	1,157,395	2,415,714

Quantities and values of iron ore imported into the United States during the years 1875 to 1894, inclusive—Continued.

	1891.		1892.		1893.		1894.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Tons.		*Tons.*		*Tons.*		*Tons.*	
France	3	$1,226						
United Kingdom:								
England	25,974	91,784	49,613	$138,472	31,787	$75,178	8,218	$29,240
Scotland			3	10				
Ireland								
Greece	23,613	34,965	53,064	78,667	20,544	35,487		
Italy	130,689	451,328	151,690	532,900	35,517	107,064	4,816	14,015
Portugal	11,345	25,406	8,940	19,912	13,237	29,304	1,019	2,478
Spain	371,080	803,804	333,424	760,734	129,285	226,956	45,120	101,388
Turkey	3,236	34,420	4,093	96,736	5,729	51,688	3,200	30,016
French Africa	41,803	83,959	130,032	261,534	23,685	47,815	4,791	9,754
Cuba	326,043	847,250	265,993	679,626	413,999	641,942	150,964	199,818
Dominion of Canada	17,828	44,485	6,065	14,981	6,880	17,186	287	846
All other countries	3,903	11,570	870	13,889	2,393	10,176	1	16
Total	955,517	2,430,159	1,008,787	2,592,461	688,056	1,242,797	218,416	387,571

Statement of the exports (domestic) and imports of bituminous coal from and into the United States during the years ending June 30, 1875 to 1894.

EXPORTS (DOMESTIC).

Countries to which exported and from which imported.	1875.		1876.		1877.		1878.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Tons.		*Tons.*		*Tons.*		*Tons.*	
France								
Germany								
Italy							16	$60
Netherlands								
Russia								
Spain								
United Kingdom:								
England								
Scotland								
Ireland								
Dominion of Canada	140,237	$519,844	168,182	$580,036	247,340	$746,106	220,058	672,274
Mexico	3,124	17,326	1,884	10,044	641	4,769	3,144	11,761
West Indies:								
British*	2,577	12,754	301	1,331	591	1,790	1,222	4,203
Danish	3,946	18,520	4,784	19,723	4,226	15,369	11,360	35,671
French†	3,083	13,650			3,424	12,634	615	1,845
Spanish—								
Cuba	33,005	164,141	33,010	143,275	51,534	198,096	62,613	212,740
Puerto Rico	153	869					32	188
Brazil	1,189	5,375		2			533	1,722
Colombia	14,207	66,509	19,942	86,205	10,096	35,150	17,431	55,694
Venezuela	30	182	425	1,923	1,834	7,763	581	2,386
All other countries	1,688	9,773	1,666	8,172	1,979	8,094	1,872	8,349
Total	208,189	828,943	230,144	850,711	321,665	1,024,711	319,477	1,005,843

* Includes British Honduras from 1875 to 1878, inclusive.
† Includes French Guiana from 1875 to 1878, inclusive.

Statement of the exports (domestic) and imports of bituminous coal, etc.—Continued.

Countries to which exported and from which imported.	1879.		1880.		1881.		1882.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Tons.		*Tons.*		*Tons.*		*Tons.*	
France	.....	.....	373	$1,815	320	$1,582	10	$63
Germany	.....	.....	.....	.....	200	1,000	.....	.....
Italy	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Netherlands	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Russia	.....	.....	.....	.....	110	660	75	450
Spain	.....	.....	350	1,925	.....	.....	.....	.....
United Kingdom:								
England	.....	.....	2,566	11,980	1,552	7,760	1,598	7,652
Scotland	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Ireland	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Dominion of Canada	165,542	$491,132	131,709	370,699	109,409	396,813	199,817	646,947
Mexico	4,555	15,903	8,083	28,395	1,396	7,326	7,028	30,552
West Indies:							1,943	
British*	2,122	6,369	861	3,460	421	1,804		7,213
Danish	9,516	28,886	2,271	7,338	5,397	20,038	8,194	32,863
French†	5,066	15,173	3,121	9,792	625	2,400	7,402	26,143
Spanish—								
Cuba	70,821	274,265	52,979	189,845	68,248	267,541	75,385	302,943
Puerto Rico	248	1,135	.....	.....	.....	.....	220	1,050
Brazil	971	3,519	817	2,596	250	1,024	1,654	6,394
Colombia	14,386	43,157	17,268	56,613	6,125	22,564	9,258	32,105
Venezuela	200	720	821	3,825	586	2,378	.....	.....
All other countries	2,573	11,273	1,415	6,956	1,329	5,647	1,736	8,528
Total	276,000	891,512	222,634	695,179	191,088	739,532	314,320	1,102,898

Countries to which exported and from which imported.	1883.		1884.		1885.		1886.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Tons.		*Tons.*		*Tons.*		*Tons.*	
France	.....	.....	2,345	$8,794	3,270	$11,345	8,947	$29,201
Germany	.....	.....	5,822	22,053	6,158	21,682	8,829	27,382
Italy	.....	.....	.....	.....	48	168	893	3,219
Netherlands	.....	.....	240	901	800	2,800	680	2,545
Russia	.....	.....	1,695	6,356	901	4,988	2,411	7,587
Spain	50	$252	356	1,442	1,280	4,480	723	2,316
United Kingdom:								
England	.....	.....	16,833	66,972	10,573	37,144	29,305	67,395
Scotland	42	168	839	2,072	1,012	3,624	1,056	4,215
Ireland	.....	.....	410	1,528	1,194	4,093	5,977	20,498
Dominion of Canada	349,203	1,134,501	501,746	1,447,908	511,532	1,422,712	298,683	751,895
Mexico	11,422	52,468	6,932	33,248	4,504	19,234	7,879	37,782
West Indies:								
British*	868	4,020	2,641	8,877	3,777	12,696	6,620	21,430
Danish	2,029	7,101	453	1,359	8,567	25,627	7,638	21,472
French†	.....	.....	50	250	1,225	3,675	2,238	6,730
Spanish—								
Cuba	86,574	343,101	79,781	281,402	95,922	302,438	113,589	332,470
Puerto Rico	.....	.....	.....	.....	719	2,447	2,269	5,885
Brazil	695	2,754	12,076	49,724	14,396	51,460	13,128	44,000
Colombia	11,026	41,946	5,613	16,834	6,476	17,872	24,183	68,260
Venezuela	.....	.....	173	720	1,091	5,095	2,931	9,510
All other countries	1,142	6,908	7,060	26,524	10,036	35,961	8,896	17,168
Total	463,051	1,593,214	646,265	1,977,959	683,481	1,989,541	532,846	1,480,940

***Statement of the exports (domestic) and imports of bituminous coal, etc.*—Continued.**

Countries to which exported and from which imported.	1887.		1888.		1889.		1890.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Tons.		*Tons.*		*Tons.*		*Tons.*	
France	4,490	$13,410	4,270	$12,785	4,785	$14,515	21,693	$67,097
Germany	4,062	12,186	4,640	13,940	6,625	20,024	33,012	102,559
Italy	380	1,140	1,528	5,636	600	1,860	4,364	19,415
Netherlands	300	900	601	2,120	350	1,050	3,280	10,028
Russia	200	750	1,260	3,830	1,654	6,736	3,233	10,141
Spain	.....	.....	600	1,850	890	8,014	4,441	13,641
United Kingdom:								
England	10,810	46,141	12,865	38,755	17,844	55,445	56,017	176,519
Scotland	240	720	1,854	5,586	570	1,710	2,733	8,390
Ireland	830	2,490	240	720	2,615	7,845	4,095	13,043
Dominion of Canada	426,742	1,055,367	474,783	1,342,339	467,584	1,304,544	548,102	1,602,876
Mexico	9,837	42,779	30,261	142,354	24,262	153,497	84,997	380,971
West Indies:								
British *	6,827	18,530	4,969	14,498	2,561	8,178	3,455	10,698
Danish	17,354	50,926	26,496	72,028	53,351	143,517	55,885	155,223
French †	8,882	23,947	16,676	43,358	28,964	81,810	30,028	83,587
Spanish—								
Cuba	111,478	308,846	139,387	386,199	172,622	480,590	212,697	631,183
Puerto Rico	1,370	5,280	1,880	6,463	1,813	6,040	4,366	12,687
Brazil	.....	.....	.....	.....	215	847	5,858	46,662
Colombia	34,016	96,987	51,794	151,209	44,128	134,552	34,004	102,982
Venezuela	1,674	6,808	2,087	11,093	1,006	7,014	6,188	25,885
All other countries	4,070	16,285	4,056	18,277	9,364	35,688	17,620	62,780
Total	643,563	1,703,492	780,248	2,273,040	841,798	2,473,476	1,126,068	3,536,362

Countries to which exported and from which imported.	1891.		1892.		1893.		1894.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
	Tons.		*Tons.*		*Tons.*		*Tons.*	
France	13,475	$57,538	41,069	$128,293	22,866	$72,080	20,286	$64,570
Germany	48,150	145,901	40,170	124,213	39,721	122,327	32,613	101,880
Italy	10,060	30,020	3,771	11,981	1,805	5,545	2,795	10,033
Netherlands	3,195	10,000	4,363	18,568	6,209	22,475	6,205	19,309
Russia	3,180	9,960	2,861	9,380	919	3,494	2,363	8,883
Spain	8,304	41,118	4,478	23,377	7,726	33,702	4,771	28,446
United Kingdom:								
England	83,892	274,416	86,621	295,989	66,185	246,418	47,471	156,956
Scotland	2,215	6,920	3,782	11,816	1,920	5,976	2,445	7,416
Ireland	1,740	5,473	3,000	9,348	5,775	30,622	1,879	6,053
Dominion of Canada	710,834	2,087,484	831,046	2,381,937	994,594	2,499,446	1,442,292	3,035,926
Mexico	122,865	600,477	114,979	542,694	158,189	730,396	122,506	430,486
West Indies:								
British*	17,410	49,880	20,186	59,808	12,959	39,562	32,155	64,213
Danish	61,364	163,821	56,856	149,882	37,004	99,564	41,460	110,670
French†	35,724	94,037	43,209	113,360	32,290	84,808	38,861	102,643
Spanish—								
Cuba	246,907	682,268	357,219	984,957	309,684	837,218	308,894	830,684
Puerto Rico	18,188	47,897	17,865	47,717	17,990	48,065	15,179	41,252
Brazil	9,037	79,764	9,435	105,698	8,741	96,622	7,435	31,457
Colombia	38,117	118,659	24,552	74,685	30,203	95,147	26,896	76,019
Venezuela	4,201	17,634	5,164	22,120	3,877	20,147	6,369	24,320
All other countries	30,869	121,264	29,875	113,675	13,949	55,920	16,996	101,159
Total	1,474,727	4,594,581	1,700,496	5,229,498	1,773,556	5,149,584	2,178,321	5,252,875

IMPORTS.

Countries to which exported and from which imported.	1875.		1876.		1877.		1878.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
United Kingdom:	*Tons.*		*Tons.*		*Tons.*		*Tons.*	
England	103,154	$488,378	83,541	$362,374	150,240	$455,894	164,760	$492,537
Scotland	14,952	53,552	20,549	56,310	33,943	91,527	24,547	58,348
Ireland	.....	.....	.....	.....	350	1,035	289	580
Dominion of Canada	181,942	697,673	178,421	719,238	174,045	693,911	265,794	924,899
Mexico	3	23	317	1,666	.....	.....	12	30
Japan	.....	.....	.....	.....	26	75	.....	.....
All other countries	141,549	559,071	125,025	468,303	138,666	533,225	123,055	459,793
Total	441,600	1,798,697	407,852	1,607,891	497,270	1,775,667	578,457	1,936,187

Statement of the exports (domestic) and imports of bituminous coal, etc.—Continued.

IMPORTS—Continued.

Countries to which exported and from which imported.	1879.		1880.		1881.		1882.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
United Kingdom:	*Tons.*		*Tons.*		*Tons.*		*Tons.*	
England	114,450	$355,887	102,792	$321,126	217,160	$677,885	333,286	$848,742
Scotland	23,934	59,196	14,688	39,258	30,092	84,416	57,575	127,100
Ireland	3	10	60	194	50	128	2	5
Dominion of Canada	235,920	866,192	269,058	882,726	340,062	991,551	290,096	778,267
Mexico	.....	.....	9	35	34	170	16	35
Japan	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	8	20
All other countries	117,166	443,181	90,910	350,171	89,962	255,324	170,351	435,129
Total	491,473	1,724,466	477,517	1,593,505	677,360	2,008,974	851,334	2,189,298

Countries to which exported and from which imported.	1883.		1884.		1885.		1886.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
United Kingdom:	*Tons.*		*Tons.*		*Tons.*		*Tons.*	
England	203,072	$564,669	219,429	$682,916	199,726	$643,347	182,438	$563,115
Scotland	33,905	140,628	51,557	186,204	59,284	175,168	34,374	111,898
Ireland	.....	.....	2,798	6,638	200	400	1	4
Dominion of Canada	312,783	836,317	318,071	1,007,354	317,269	1,074,029	312,508	1,014,116
Mexico	53	125	359	1,376	18,009	65,556	61,670	208,347
Japan	13	60	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
All other countries	172,869	544,173	228,052	673,676	223,430	635,180	233,370	654,474
Total	722,695	2,085,972	820,266	2,558,164	817,918	2,593,679	824,361	2,551,954

Countries to which exported and from which imported.	1887.		1888.		1889.		1890.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
United Kingdom:	*Tons.*		*Tons.*		*Tons.*		*Tons.*	
England	212,727	$510,918	138,722	$354,354	87,155	$244,062	35,769	$134,272
Scotland	36,825	122,091	29,649	129,373	46,196	164,228	10,954	49,736
Ireland	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	4	.....	.....
Dominion of Canada	332,942	1,153,604	374,833	1,426,049	424,741	1,342,466	483,239	1,769,420
Mexico	1,517	4,897	364	1,209	88,071	267,836	44,852	139,835
Japan	2	10	1,320	5,521	18,628	57,037	4,852	15,921
All other countries	322,621	923,922	332,616	930,235	486,067	1,353,612	355,527	978,576
Total	906,634	2,715,442	877,504	2,846,741	1,155,829	3,929,245	935,193	3,067,769

Countries to which exported and from which imported.	1891.		1892.		1893.		1894.	
	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.	Quantity.	Value.
United Kingdom:	*Tons.*		*Tons.*		*Tons.*		*Tons.*	
England	110,340	$369,142	167,743	$553,804	125,569	$389,145	89,690	$262,861
Scotland	22,184	90,934	66,804	190,226	25,681	75,528	29,685	76,911
Ireland	.....	.....	501	806	.....	.....	104	310
Dominion of Canada	650,926	2,334,775	680,388	2,480,555	648,992	2,401,826	771,306	2,774,524
Mexico	39,310	129,970	56,611	176,549	9,795	26,672	49,949	117,120
Japan	24,466	86,442	4,660	14,768	4,630	8,544	13,206	29,000
All other countries	207,843	577,010	355,257	956,371	287,564	712,487	194,534	443,387
Total	1,055,069	3,588,273	1,331,964	4,373,079	1,102,231	3,614,202	1,148,454	3,704,113

J. N. WHITNEY,
Acting Chief of Bureau.

TREASURY DEPARTMENTT, BUREAU OF STATISTICS,
August 17, 1894.

Exports of bituminous coal of domestic product to the Dominion of Canada and to Mexico, by customs districts, during the year ending June 30, 1894.

Customs districts.	Quantity.	Value.
To Nova Scotia:	*Tons.*	
New York, N. Y	210	$850
Boston, Mass	12	52
Total	222	902
To Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, and Northwest Territory:		
Buffalo Creek, N. Y	593,217	1,149,889
Champlain, N. Y	3,479	7,441
Detroit, Mich	200,706	318,994
Cuyahoga, Ohio	169,493	446,728
Erie, Pa	3,050	6,932
Genesee, N. Y	125,259	375,777
Huron, Mich	44,691	134,233
Miami, Ohio	22,220	35,989
Michigan, Mich	2	3
Niagara, N. Y	248,769	464,476
North and South Dakota	10,120	34,818
Oswegatchie, N. Y	1,178	4,950
Sandusky, Ohio	5,698	12,178
Superior, Mich	703	2,003
Vermont	926	3,402
Philadelphia, Pa	3,000	7,500
Baltimore, Md	3,048	7,620
Norfolk and Portsmouth, Va	6,010	18,030
Total	1,443,569	3,030,958
To British Columbia:		
San Francisco, Cal	197	1,883
Montana and Idaho	38	235
Puget Sound, Wash	140	711
Willamette, Oreg	126	1,237
Total	501	4,066
To Mexico:		
New York, N. Y	3	17
Philadelphia, Pa	17,259	40,683
San Francisco, Cal	137	1,507
Arizona	3,717	14,742
Brazos de Santiago, Tex	3	30
Corpus Christi, Tex	24,345	91,978
Mobile, Ala	11,307	35,420
Newport News, Va	11,952	40,737
Paso del Norte, Tex	744	6,072
Pensacola, Fla	32,883	134,909
Saluria, Tex	35	160
Baltimore, Md	18,691	57,641
Norfolk and Portsmouth, Va	1,430	6,590
Total	122,506	430,486

Imports of bituminous coal from the Dominion of Canada, by customs districts, during the year ending June 30, 1894.

Customs districts.	Quantity.	Value.
From Nova Scotia:	*Tons.*	
New Bedford, Mass	1,722	$3,272
Newburyport, Mass	1,554	1,756
Passamaquoddy, Me	4,367	4,043
Portland, Me	2,357	3,495
Salem, Mass	1,129	1,113
Waldoboro, Me	285	297
Portsmouth, N. H	2,548	4,700
Plymouth and Falmouth, Me	315	634
New York	20,278	38,389
Boston, Mass	16,116	29,654
Aroostook, Me	15	33
Bangor, Me	6,903	21,476
Belfast, Me	376	684
Total	57,965	109,548

Imports of bituminous coal from the Dominion of Canada, etc.—Continued.

Customs districts.	Quantity.	Value.
From Quebec, Ontario, Manitoba, and Northwest Territory:	*Tons.*	
Detroit, Mich	1	24
Champlain, N. Y	3,146	9,517
Montana and Idaho	30,488	67,667
North and South Dakota	9	49
Oswegatchie, N. Y	2,702	8,380
Vermont	2,965	9,048
Total	39,306	94,665
From British Columbia:		
San Francisco, Cal	506,715	1,966,209
Willamette, Oreg	710	2,350
Puget Sound, Wash	2,798	9,517
Alaska	21,875	78,761
Los Angeles, Cal	102,461	355,995
San Diego, Cal	39,276	156,781
Oregon, Oreg	200	700
Total	674,035	2,570,312

Imports into the United States for consumption of the following articles, and the duty collected thereon.

BITUMINOUS COAL AND SHALE.

Year.	Quantity.	Value.	Rate of duty.	Amount of duty received.
	Tons.			
1875	436,714	$1,791,601.16	75 cents per ton	$327,535.50
1876	400,631.60	1,592,846.22	....do	300,473.72
1877	495,815.58	1,782,940.98	....do	371,861.71
1878	572,845.68	1,929,660.00	....do	429,634.24
1879	486,500.83	1,716,208.00	....do	364,875.67
1880	471,817.56	1,588,311.99	....do	353,863.46
1881	652,963.13	1,988,199.18	....do	489,722.43
1882	795,721.81	2,141,373.21	....do	596,791.27
1883	645,924.27	2,013,554.72	....do	484,443.24
1884	748,995.12	2,494,228.40	....do	561,746.35
1885	768,477.21	2,548,432.15	....do	576,357.89
1886	774,799.90	2,492,318.35	....do	581,099.98
1887	872,652.29	2,692,087.39	....do	654,488.25
1888	843,001.16	2,830,562.34	....do	632,250.86
1889	1,130,421.25	3,913,168.02	....do	847,815.94
1890	908,608.55	3,071,366.47	....do	681,456.48
1891	1,031,560.05	3,558,932.31	....do	773,670.12
1892	1,309,974.56	4,352,180.46	....do	982,480.93
1893	1,090,374.12	3,599,037.72	....do	817,780.59
1894	1,131,239.04	3,680,606.79	....do	848,429.35

COKE.

1875	934	$9,648.00	25 per cent	$2,412.00
1876	1,843.50	8,656.00	....do	2,164.17
1877	3,632.36	16,686.46	....do	4,171.62
1878	5,907.05	24,186.00	....do	6,046.50
1879	5,388	24,748.16	....do	6,187.04
1880	4,506.10	18,406.00	....do	4,601.50
1881	13,580.10	64,987.38	....do	16,246.84
1882	13,324.75	53,244.03	....do	13,311.01
1883	18,423	113,113.69	....do	28,278.43
1884	12,931.43	36,277.98	20 per cent	7,255.59
1885	18,728	64,813.89	....do	12,962.77
1886	24,305	78,678.00	....do	15,735.60
1887	31,127.41	91,756.95	....do	18,351.38
1888	38,713.05	113,491.74	....do	22,698.35
1889	25,421.27	79,402.01	....do	15,880.39
1890	28,333.63	115,953.44	....do	23,190.68
1891	22,964.10	118,752.52	....do	23,750.51
1892	42,761.47	192,688.00	....do	38,537.60
1893	26,599.80	87,238.09	....do	17,447.62
1894	31,918.44	90,448.89	....do	18,089.77

Imports into the United States for consumption of the following articles, and the duty collected thereon—Continued.

CULM OF COAL, OR SLACK.

Year.	Quantity.	Value.	Rate of duty.	Amount of duty received.
	Tons.			
1875	5,645.70	$8,257.25	40 cents per ton	$2,258.26
1876	4,260.00	4,772.92	....do	1,704.00
1877	3,801.00	4,223.01	....do	1,520.40
1878	5,179.35	5,270.05	....do	2,071.74
1879	4,538.30	4,295.23	....do	1,815.32
1880	6,122.82	5,775.24	....do	2,449.14
1881	25,094.25	20,768.22	....do	10,037.68
1882	60,769.84	51,316.02	....do	24,307.98
1883	76,635.25	70,596.74	....do	30,654.04
1884	69,148.81	59,451.65	30 cents per ton	20,744.65
1885	48,044.09	41,355.50	....do	14,414.22
1886	45,132.47	50,799.35	....do	13,539.74
1887	36,292.80	27,313.97	....do	10,887.83
1888	36,121.52	24,624.00	....do	10,836.46
1889	25,300.70	15,562.00	....do	7,590.22
1890	26,608.11	16,654.95	....do	7,982.45
1891	24,746.34	26,767.69	....do	7,423.92
1892	19,193.90	17,265.67	....do	5,758.17
1893	14,692.55	15,366.55	....do	4,407.75
1894	7,357.59	10,920.84	....do	2,207.58

IRON ORE, INCLUDING MANGANIFEROUS IRON ORE, ALSO THE DROSS OR RESIDUUM FROM BURNT PYRITES.

1875	56,654.75	$146,061.70	20 per cent	$29,212.34
1876	17,284.50	55,665.93	....do	11,133.18
1877	30,668.68	83,216.54	....do	16,643.29
1878	28,212.26	60,383.48	....do	12,076.69
1879	150,197.05	365,345.00	....do	73,069.00
1880	416,174.75	1,173,842.00	....do	234,768.40
1881	625,761.44	1,733,125.97	....do	346,625.19
1882	577,118.79	1,655,693.00	....do	331,138.60
1883	609,322.00	1,587,597.20	....do	317,519.44
1884	551,272.55	1,244,337.20	75 cents per ton	413,454.40
1885	419,041.05	945,683.48	....do	314,280.79
1886	701,862.13	1,268,591.37	....do	426,405.61
1887	1,137,165.34	2,091,316.00	....do	652,874.03
1888	915,321.02	1,770,947.00	....do	686,490.76
1889	646,796.87	1,457,002.50	....do	485,097.65
1890	1,156,730.56	2,407,514.00	....do	867,547.93
1891	950,447.13	2,372,754.00	....do	712,835.37
1892	999,435.76	2,465,497.00	....do	749,576.82
1893	677,301.57	1,189,635.75	....do	507,976.19
1894	171,377.02	381,867.00	....do	128,532.85

IRON ORE—CHROMATE OF IRON, OR CHROMIC ORE.

1884	2,676.75	$73,586.00	15 per cent	$11,637.90
1885	12	239.00	....do	35.85
1886	3,356	43,731.00	....do	6,559.65
1887	1,403.70	20,812.00	....do	3,121.80
1888	4,440.20	46,735.00	....do	7,010.25
1889	5,470	50,665.00	....do	7,599.75
1890	663.45	8,190.00	....do	1,128.50
1891	4,092.50	56,982.00	....do	8,547.30
1892	5,893.50	126,074.00	....do	18,941.10
1893	6,006.34	54,698.00	....do	8,204.70
1894	3,558.08	34,357.00	....do	5,153.55

Rates of import duty levied by the tariffs of the several colonial and other possessions of the United Kingdom, according to the latest returns, etc.

[From British Statistical Abstract Colonial Possessions.]

Possessions.	Coals.	Possessions.	Coals.
Mauritius	*1*s.* ½*d.* per ton.	West India Islands—Cont'd.	
Tasmania	3*s.* per ton.	Barbados	2*s.* 6*d.* per ton.
Queensland	2*s.* per ton.	Virgin Islands	
Natal	† 5 per cent ad valorem.	St. Christopher	
Cape of Good Hope	‡ 2*s.* per ton.	Nevis	
Lagos	5 per cent ad valorem.	Antigua	
Dominion of Canada	(§)	Montserrat	
Newfoundland	(‖)	Dominica	
West India Islands:		Trinidad	2*s.* per ton.
St. Vincent	10 per cent ad valorem.	Tobago	
		British Guiana	Per hhd. 1*s.* 4*d.*
		Gibraltar	Free.
		Malta	Free.

* With an additional charge of 10 per cent on the duty so leviable.
† Coke and patent fuel 3*s.* per ton.
‡ Per ton of 2,000 pounds.
§ Anthracite, free; bituminous, 2*s.* 6*d.* per ton of 2,000 pounds; bituminous dust, 20 per cent ad valorem.
‖ At St. John's, Harbor Grace, and Carbonear, 1*s.* 3*d.* Other ports free.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,
Washington, August 20, 1894.

SIR: That portion of your inquiry relating to the "rates of duty imposed by countries exporting coal and iron ore to the United States on such articles when imported into those countries," has been referred to this Department by the Bureau of Statistics of the Treasury Department, and in compliance with such reference I have the honor to transmit such information as is contained in the consular and other reports covering the inquiry under consideration.

Statement showing the quantities and value of coal imported into the United States from the principal countries during the fiscal year 1893, and the rates of duty imposed by said countries upon coal imported thereinto:

Imports of coal into the United States.	Value.	Rates of duty imposed by said countries on coal.
Imported from—		
Dominion of Canada	$2,402,000	60 cents per ton.
Australasia	712,000	Free.
United Kingdom	464,000	Free.
Mexico	26,000	Free.
Japan	8,000	Free.
All other countries	2,000	
Total	3,614,000	

Statement showing the imports of iron ore into the United States from the principal countries during the fiscal year 1893, and the rates of duty imposed by said countries upon iron ore imported thereinto.

Imports of iron ore into the United States.	Value.	Rates of duty imposed by said countries on iron ore.
Imported from—		
Cuba	$642,000	Free.
Spain	227,000	$0.0579 per ton.
Italy	107,000	Free.
Great Britain	75,000	Free.
Algeria	48,000	Free.
Turkey in Europe	41,000	8 per cent.
Greece	35,000	Free.
Portugal	29,000	54 cents per ton.
Canada	17,000	Free.
Newfoundland	9,000	
Turkey in Asia	11,000	8 per cent ad valorem.
All other countries	2,000	
Total	1,243,000	

A careful search through the files of the Department fails to show that any of the foregoing foreign countries have paid a royalty or imposed an export tax on coal or iron ore exported therefrom during the past twenty years.

Very respectfully,

JOHN M. BIDDLE,
Acting Chief Clerk.

Hon. FRANCIS M. COCKRELL,
U. S. Senate.

53D CONGRESS, 2d Session. | SENATE. | MIS. DOC. No. 276.

IN THE SENATE OF THE UNITED STATES.

AUGUST 27, 1894.—Referred to the Committee on Interstate Commerce and ordered to be printed.

The VICE-PRESIDENT presented the following

COLLECTION OF STATEMENTS FROM THE CHAIRMAN OF THE INTERSTATE COMMERCE COMMISSION RELATIVE TO FOREIGN RAILWAY OWNERSHIP AND OPERATION.

INTERSTATE COMMERCE COMMISSION,
Washington, D. C., August 27, 1894.

SIR: In part compliance with the resolution of the Senate passed August 24, 1894, relating to railroad ownership by foreign governments, I have the honor to transmit herewith a collection of statements contained in various publications treating of foreign railway ownership and operation. The Commission will hereafter furnish the Senate with such further information on the subjects embraced in the resolution as may be obtainable.

Respectfully,

WM. R. MORRISON,
Chairman.

The Hon. the PRESIDENT OF THE SENATE.

GOVERNMENT OWNERSHIP OF RAILROADS.

This subject is treated in this paper under the following heads:

1. Relations of governments to the railroads of the world.
2. The foregoing data tabulated.
3. Comparison of freight and passenger rates on government-owned railroads and on roads within the United States.
4. Views of various writers on the subject.

(1) *RELATIONS OF GOVERNMENTS TO THE RAILROADS OF THE WORLD.*

ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

The Government owned about 620 miles of railroad in or about the year 1893. In that year the total mileage was 8,053 miles.

AUSTRALASIA.

About five-sixths of the mileage in Australasia belongs to the various colonial governments. These roads were built principally with moneys derived from large loans negotiated by agents-general, and their value forms one of the principal assets for the public debt. The management of the Victorian and New South Wales railways having resulted in various abuses, they were, about the year 1884, placed under the direct management of a nonpartisan commission. In addition to the management of existing roads, this commission has charge of the construction of new lines.

AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

In Austria about 40 per cent of the railway mileage is owned, and about 73 per cent is operated, by the State. Upon the expiration of charters, not exceeding ninety years, the lines, lands, and buildings of the companies revert to the Government, but the equipment remains the property of the private owners. Before a railway is opened it must be approved by the minister of commerce. The tariffs of State roads are fixed by the Government; those of the companies are subject to revision by the Government every three years, and the Government has power to reduce rates, if the net earnings exceed 15 per cent on capital.

BELGIUM.

About three-fourths of the railway mileage in Belgium is owned and operated by the State. The roads not owned by the Government will, under the terms of their charters, ultimately revert to it. Railway affairs are administered by a Government "department of railways, post-offices, and telegraph." The laws regulate tariffs. Railways are exempted from taxation.

BRAZIL.

The State owns about one-fourth of the total railway mileage, but this one-fourth does about one-half of the entire business.

CANADA.

About one-tenth of the total mileage of about 15,000 miles is owned and controlled by the Government. For the year 1892 the operation of the Government lines resulted in a loss of over $600,000.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE (ENGLISH SOUTH AFRICA).

All of the railroads are owned by the Government, except one of about 192 miles in Cape Colony.

CHILE.

About one-third of the railway mileage is owned by the State.

COLOMBIA.

The Government has granted subsidies to the railways with the understanding that, at the end of a certain period, they will become the property of the Government.

DENMARK.

The State owns and controls about three-fourths of the total mileage, which in 1892 was 1,289 miles.

EGYPT.

The railway system, covering about 1,225 miles, belongs to the Government.

FRANCE.

At the present date by far the larger portion (about five-sixths) of the French railway system is operated by private companies, each company serving a definite territory and being comparatively free from the competition of other lines. But the railroad properties are ultimately to become the property of the Government. This system is a mixed one of State and private ownership. The competition of the private lines compelled the Government to lease some of the State lines to the former. On account of the necessity for great additional taxation, the scheme of nationalization of the railway system was abandoned in 1883.

GERMANY.

In Germany nearly 90 per cent of the railway mileage is owned by the Government. Under the law, the Government is required to manage the railways in the interest of general traffic as a single system. It may cause the construction and equipment of roads and enforce uniform traffic and police regulations. Even the few private railways are controlled by State boards.

GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

The Government does not own any of the railways. There are stringent regulations provided by law and administered by the railway commission and board of trade. New lines can not be constructed without the sanction of Parliament. The act of 1844 provided that the Govern-

ment should have the right to acquire any railroad constructed after its date by purchasing the same for a sum equal to twenty-five years' purchase of annual divisible profits, estimated on the average annual profits for the three years preceding the date of purchase. If, however, the average profit for such three years has been less than 10 per cent, and the company thought the purchase price based thereupon was inadequate because of the future prospects of the property, the matter was to be referred to arbitration. Under this law, however, the Government was not empowered to take branches or extensions of old lines constructed after the date of the act unless it took the whole system, if the company required it to do so. This law, so far as it relates to the Government acquisition of railroads, has never been acted upon. Twenty-three years later (in 1867) a commission appointed by the Government to report on the subject stated: "We are of the opinion that it is inexpedient at present to subvert the policy which has hitherto been adopted of leaving the construction and management of railways to the free enterprise of the people, under such conditions as Parliament may think best to impose for the general welfare of the public."

GREECE.

The railways of Greece are nearly all owned and altogether managed by private companies.

GUATEMALA.

The Government owns and operates 30 of the 126 miles of railway in this country.

HOLLAND.

One-half of the railways belong to the State, but that one-half is worked by a private company.

INDIA.

Two-thirds of the railways belong to the Government and the other one-third, owned by private companies, is subsidized.

ITALY.

Italy has tried both State and private railroads, and has come to the conclusion that it is not advantageous for the State to own and operate the railways. The result was a reorganization of the whole railway system. Under the present system private companies operate the State roads under contract with the Government. The contracts run for sixty years, the Government or the companies having the option to terminate them at the end of twenty or forty years, upon a two years' notice.

JAPAN.

Only a small per cent of the railway mileage is owned by the Government. When a charter is granted to a private company for a limited period under the ordinance of 1887 the Government has the right at its expiration to purchase the property at a price calculated upon the average price of the shares during the five years previous to the date of purchase. Prior to 1875 there appears to have been State, prefecture, and village railroads in Japan. State roads are maintained at national expense, but their regulation and repair are in the hands of the prefectures through which they pass. Prefecture roads are main-

tained by equal contributions from the general Government and particular districts or prefectures. Village roads serve petty local districts, and are maintained at their expense.

MEXICO.

The Mexican railways are owned and operated by private corporations. Nearly all have been built by American companies. But the charters granted to most of the railway companies contain a proviso allowing the Government to purchase the railways after the lapse of a named number of years.

NICARAGUA.

The few roads of this country are owned by the State.

NORWAY.

Owing to the topographical difficulties of the country Norway has never, except a short line of 42 miles, had any other than State railways.

PARAGUAY.

Paraguay owns its railways.

PERU.

The railways are operated by private companies.

PORTUGAL.

About 62 per cent of the mileage is owned and operated by private companies. Most of them, however, have been aided by the Government through concessions and subsidies or guaranties. Where aid has been granted it has always been conditioned upon the roads reverting to the Government in ninety-nine years.

RUSSIA.

The Government is stated to own and operate about 40 per cent of the railway mileage. Nearly all the railways owned by private companies have received subsidies from the Government. The State is represented on boards of directors, and all expenditures, declarations of dividends, etc., must be recommended by the directors and approved by the Government.

SPAIN.

Mileage owned and operated by private companies.

SWEDEN.

In 1892 about one-third of the total mileage of 5,254 was owned by the State.

SWISS CONFEDERATION.

All the lines of railways in this country belong to private companies, but the Government has direct supervision over them.

TURKEY.

The railways of Turkey all belong to private companies.

UNITED STATES.

The National Government does not own or operate any of the railways. It is stated that several of the States have tried ownership in a limited way. Illinois constructed a road at a cost of $1,000,000, but disposed of it for $100,000; Indiana had a similar experience; Georgia owns a railroad, but has found it expedient to lease it to a private company; Pennsylvania constructed a railroad from Philadelphia to Columbia, but subsequently sold it; Massachusetts, Michigan, and several other States tried the experiment without success. (Kirkman.)

URUGUAY.

There are no State railways in Uruguay.

NOTE.—The above statements are based upon the Consular Reports, Mullhall's Dictionary of Statistics, Reports of the Interstate Commerce Commission, Statesman's Year Book, 1894, Reports of Bureau of American Republics, and various other authorities hereinafter cited.

(2) *THE FOREGOING DATA TABULATED.*

A table showing to what extent governmental ownership and operation of railways obtains in the principal governments of the world:

Country.	Year.	Total mileage.	Mileage owned by State.	Mileage owned by private companies.	Mileage operated by State.	Mileage operated by private companies.	Per cent of mileage owned by State.	Per cent of mileage owned by private companies.	Per cent of mileage operated by State.	Per cent of mileage operated by private companies.
Argentina	1893	8,053	620	7,433	620	7,433	7.70	92.30	7.70	92.30
Australasia	1893	12,660	10,619	2,041	10,619	2,041	83.88	16.12	83.88	16.12
Austria-Hungary	1893	17,619	7,044	10,575	12,923	4,696	39.98	60.02	73.35	26.65
Belgium	1893	2,810	2,018	792	2,018	792	71.81	28.19	71.81	28.19
Brazil	1892	6,375	1,700	4,675	1,700	4,675	26.67	73.33	26.67	73.33
Canada	1892	14,588	1,459	13,129	1,459	13,129	10	90	10	90
Cape of Good Hope	1892	2,444	2,252	192	2,252	192	92.14	7.86	92.14	7.86
Chili	1892	1,715	685	1,030	685	1,030	39.94	60.06	39.94	60.06
Colombia	1894	240	.....	240	.....	240	.....	100	.....	100
Denmark	1892	1,289	992	297	992	297	76.96	23.04	76.96	23.04
Egypt	1892	1,225	1,225	.....	1,225	.....	100	.....	100	.....
France	1893	[1] 21,618	13,652	17,966	3,652	17,966	16.89	83.11	16.89	83.11
Germany	1892	26,971	23,848	3,123	24,144	2,827	88.42	11.58	89.52	10.48
Great Britain and Ireland	1893	20,325	.....	20,325	.....	20,325	.....	100	.....	100
Greece	1893	568	92	476	.....	568	16.20	83.80	.....	100
Guatemala	1894	126	30	96	30	96	23.81	76.19	23.81	76.19
Holland	1891	1,630	873	757	.....	1,630	53.56	46.44	.....	100
India, British	1893	[1] 8,042	12,028	6,014	12,028	6,014	66.67	33.33	66.67	33.33
Italy	1890	[2] 8,106	[2] 5,272	[2] 2,834	.....	8,106	65.04	34.96	.....	100
Japan	1891	1,221	55	1,166	55	1,166	4.50	95.50	4.50	95.50
Mexico	1893	6,900	.....	6,900	.....	6,900	.....	100	.....	100
Nicaragua	1894	122	122	.....	122	.....	100	.....	100	.....
Norway	1893	971	929	42	929	42	95.67	4.33	95.67	4.33
Paraguay	1893	156	.....	156	.....	156	.....	100	.....	100
Peru	1893	950	.....	950	.....	950	.....	100	.....	100
Portugal	1891	1,334	505	829	505	829	37.86	62.14	37.86	62.14
Russia, including Finland	1891	19,640	8,003	11,637	8,003	11,637	40.75	59.25	40.75	59.25
Spain	1893	6,708	.....	6,708	.....	6,708	.....	100	.....	100
Sweden	1892	5,254	1,770	3,484	1,770	3,484	33.69	66.31	33.69	66.31
Switzerland	1892	2,082	.....	2,082	.....	2,082	.....	100	.....	100
Turkey in Europe	1892	904	.....	904	.....	904	.....	100	.....	100
Turkey in Asia	1892	974	.....	974	.....	974	.....	100	.....	100
United States	1893	176,461	.....	176,461	.....	176,461	.....	100	.....	100
Uruguay	1893	993	.....	993	.....	993	.....	100	.....	100

[1] Includes 1,957 miles of local interest.
[2] Includes 96 miles, owned jointly by State and private companies.

NOTE.—Where information of the apportionment of mileage operated between the State and private companies could not be obtained, it has been assumed that each operate the mileage which they own.

From this it appears that the following countries do not own or operate railways, viz: Colombia, Great Britain and Ireland, Mexico, Paraguay, Peru, Spain, Switzerland, Turkey, United States, and Uruguay, 10.

The following governments own and operate practically all their railways, viz: Eygpt and Nicaragua, 2.

The following governments own and operate some of the railways, viz: Argentina, Australasia, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Brazil, Canada, Cape of Good Hope, Chili, Denmark, France, Germany, Guatemala, India, Japan, Norway, Portugal, Russia, and Sweden, 18.

The following governments own part of the railways, but do not operate any, leasing all the present mileage to private companies, viz: Greece, Holland, and Italy, 3.

Though not claimed to be accurate, it is believed that the foregoing summary presents an approximately correct statement of the relation of the various governments to the railways.

The total railway mileage of the world is estimated in a recent issue of *Archiv fur Eisenbahnwesen* at 406,416 miles on December 31, 1892.

(3) *COMPARISON OF FREIGHT AND PASSENGER RATES ON GOVERNMENT-OWNED ROADS AND ON ROADS IN THE UNITED STATES.*

The freight charges on the Australasian railways are considerably greater than on the lines in the United States. It is said, however, that there are circumstances which should be taken into consideration in comparing the charges of the two countries. The people here, nevertheless, are constantly clamoring for the reduction of the rates. The farmers in Victoria insist that it will not pay them to grow grain unless they can get a reduction of fully 50 per cent on the present rates. (Consular Report, No. 97.)

A word may be required as to American rates. No doubt we in Australia will never be able to obtain rates as low as those that prevail in the United States, our conditions being radically different; but the extraordinary thing is that the assertion should be persisted in that our Victorian rates are lower than those that are charged in America. The force of mendacity could scarcely further go. In one sense, there are no American rates to quote. There are a thousand and one railways in America, and each line has its own schedule, and any fancy list can be prepared. The inquirer can only deal with averages, and taking averages there is no doubt possible. The current number of the Fortnightly Review is tolerably accessible to most people, and the inquirer has but to open the article by Mr. J. S. Jeans on the railway subject, and he will find the allegation that freights on the United States lines are the lowest in the world. Mr. Jeans adds: "There is no need for any controversy on this point." The fact is set out in the clearest possible light in the published accounts of the principal American railways. The Pennsylvania system may be taken as a typical case. Over a large portion of this vast system—the largest and most important on the face of the globe under one designation and control—the average ton-mile rate in 1890 was less than a farthing per ton per mile. The average ton-mile rate for the whole system was three-tenths of a penny. That is to say, that throughout this great organization the average for goods of all classes, first-class goods, second class, and so on, was just over a farthing per ton per mile, while, in Victoria the average for all classes would be more like 3*d*. per ton per mile; and it is obvious that wheat and similar low-priced goods may be carried over the Pennsylvania lines at rates which appear to us to be nominal." * * * Still, when the average American rate for wheat is under one-fourth of a penny per ton per mile, and the average Victorian rate is 1*d*. per ton and over, the handicap appears to be excessive. (Extract from the Argus, published in the province of Victoria, as contained in Consul-General Maratta's report of May 10, 1894, Consular Reports, Vol. XLV, No. 167, p. 579.)

The freight rates in the United States are, in general terms, only five-eighths of those charged on the continent of Europe, and a little less than one-half of those which prevail in Great Britain. (Gen. Horace Porter, North American Review, 1891, vol. 153, p. 718.)

The transportation charges in Russia are 40 per cent higher than in America. Working expenses there are 75 per cent of the gross receipts. (Consular Reports, vol. 26, p. 350, 1888.)

Mulhall gives the working expenses at 57 per cent of gross receipts.

The following table furnishes a comparison of average passenger rates per mile.

[Gen. Horace Porter, North American Review, p. 718, vol. 153, 1891.]

	First class.	Second class.	Third class.
	Cents.	*Cents.*	*Cents.*
United Kingdom	4.42	3.20	1.94
France	3.86	2.86	2.06
Germany	3.10	2.32	1.54
United States	2.12	.....	.....

In Paraguay the first-class rate for passengers is 4½ cents. (Consular Reports, vol. 29, p. 644, 1889.)

The railway passenger rates in Great Britain may be taken generally as 4, 3, and 2 cents per mile for the first, second, and third classes, respectively. (Consular Reports, vol. 40, p. 280, 1892.)

Comparative summary showing average rates per mile for passengers and freight in various countries.

[Mulhall and Interstate Commerce Commission statistics of railways in the United States, 1888.]

Country.	Passenger (pence per mile).			Freight (pence per ton per mile).
	First class.	Second class.	Third class.	
United Kingdom	2.1	1.6	1	1.40
France	2	1.5	1	1.10
Germany	1.5	1.1	.8	.82
Russia	1.8	1.4	.8	1.20
Austria	1.9	1.4	.9	1.15
Italy	1.8	1.3	.9	1.25
Spain	2.1	1.6	1	.....
Portugal	1.8	1.4	1	.....
Sweden	1.5	1.1	.8	1.60
Norway	.8	.5	.2½	1.20
Denmark	1.6	1.1	.8	1.44
Holland	1.6	1.3	.8	.78
Belgium	1.2	.9	.6	.80
Switzerland	1.9	1.3	1	1.65
Greece	1.4	.9	.7	.....
Turkey	2.9	2.6	1.4	.....
Canada	.9	.....	.....	*.51
United States	1.17	.....	.....	*.50

*1888.

NOTE.—Double the above figures to obtain rate in cents.

Table showing percentage of working expenses to gross receipts and percentage of interest paid on capital invested.

Country.	Percentage of working expenses.	Interest on capital.	Country.	Percentage of working expenses.	Interest on capital.
	Per cent.	*Per cent.*		*Per cent.*	*Per cent.*
United Kingdom	52	4.1	Switzerland	53	4.1
France	52	3.8	Roumania, etc.	69	2.7
Germany	54	5.1	Europe	54	3.7
Russia	57	5.3	United States	70	3.1
Austria	56	3.1	Canada	70	1.7
Italy	65	2.5	Spanish America	67	1.6
Spain	44	4.4	Japan	43	3.1
Portugal	43	3.3	India	50	5.2
Sweden	62	2.9	Australia	63	3.3
Norway	70	1.8	South Africa	52	4.3
Denmark	86	1.2	Algeria	70	1.6
Holland	54	2.9	Egypt	46	4.1
Belgium	52	4.6	The world	62	3.2

Only India and Germany earn over 5 per cent on capital, the average for the world being 3¼ per cent. There are 13 countries earning over the average and 11 less than the average. (Mulhall.)

Rates and cost of carriage in the United States for the years ending June 30, 1893, 1892, 1891, 1890, 1889, and 1888.

[Report on "Statistics of Railways in the United States" for year ending June 30, 1893, p. 63.]

Item.	1893.	1892.	1891.	1890.	1889.	1888.
	Cents.	*Cents.*	*Cents.*	*Cents.*	*Cents.*	*Cents.*
Revenue per passenger per mile	2.108	2.126	2.142	2.167	2.165	2.349
Average cost of carrying 1 passenger 1 mile	1.955	1.939	1.910	1.917	1.993	2.042
Revenue per ton of freight per mile	.878	.898	.895	.941	.922	1.001
Average cost of carrying 1 ton 1 mile	.579	.582	.583	.604	.593	.630

The railway mileage in the United States on June 30, 1893, was 176,461.07 miles. (Report on "Statistics of Railways in the United States" for year ending June 30, 1893, p. 11.)

Reported cost and value of railway properties in the United States for year ending June 30, 1893 (161,258.07 miles of line represented).

[Report on "Statistics of Railways in the United States" for the year ending June 30, 1893, p. 64.]

Item.	Amount.	Increase.
ASSETS.		
Cost of road	$8,415,491,543	$215,398,981
Cost of equipment	522,054,217	32,063,936
Stocks owned	687,107,244	22,832,201
Bonds owned	336,712,255	55,632,352
Cash and current assets	403,979,166	* 8,596,219
Materials and supplies	75,755,170	918,508
Sinking fund and sundries	† 127,327,910	3,192,898
Miscellaneous	753,836,856	* 13,638,259
Total	11,272,264,361	307,804,398
LIABILITIES.		
Capital stock	4,630,457,481	51,886,02[illegible]2
Funded debt	5,266,318,961	170,308,60[illegible]
Current liabilities	604,248,946	70,379,552
Accrued interest on funded debt not yet payable	26,415,861	* 404,486
Miscellaneous	521,601,002	20,877,838
Profit and loss	223,222,110	* 5,243,128
Total	11,272,264,361	307,804,398

* Decrease. † Sinking fund, $83,383,434; sundries, $43,944,476.

(4) *VIEWS OF VARIOUS WRITERS.*

The policy of giving the control of the railways to the State (in Australia) is very seriously questioned in many quarters. One of the principal objections to it is the amount of patronage it controls, and the liability to use such patronage for political purposes Another objection is that under the State system the expenditures are greater and the receipts smaller than when under the management of private companies. It is urged, however, by those who support the State system that the reason Government-owned railways experience so much difficulty in making fair returns for the amount of capital invested, is that as soon as a profit is shown the public insists upon concessions in rates or increased facilities, both of which are practically an amelioration of taxation. The difference between a State and a private railway is explained on the ground that as traffic develops, in one case, the public get immediate benefit from lower charges and greater facilities, and in the other, the shareholders obtain a larger dividend at the end of each year's working. (Consular Report, 97.)

The railways of Australia practically represent the assets for the national debts of each colony, and to-day would probably realize, if they were to be disposed of,

the full amount of the national indebtedness. It is, however, improbable that the people concerned will ever allow these great possessions to pass into private hands, believing that they should be retained to open up and develop the resources of the colonies and aid in the material progress of Australia.

It is agreed, however, that, to a certain extent, the railway administration should be separated from politics. The construction and direction of new lines may well be left to Parliament to determine, but the management of the lines and control of the railways' daily working, it is held, are matters for skilled and capable railway managers, untrammeled by the exigencies that political considerations would often cause to influence the political mind. (See Consular Reports, Vol. XLV, No. 167, p. 579.)

[Extracts from "The Railroad Problem," Adams, 1887.]

The Government of Belgium, meanwhile, in its turn, pressed by the competition of the private lines, found itself compelled to work its roads on regular "commercial principles." In order to get business it made special rates, and, if necessary, entered into joint-purse arrangements with its adversaries. ("The Railroad Problem," Adams, p. 99.)

Should the Belgian Government now adopt a policy of expansion, and proceed to acquire the remaining lines of the system, it will enter upon the very doubtful experiment of exclusive State management. ("The Railroad Problem," Adams, p. 100.)

Meanwhile the whole drift of discussion tends away from the private ownership of French railroads and reliance on competition among them, towards a closer connection between the railroads and the Government. ("The Railroad Problem," Adams, p. 108.)

Indeed, those managing the French railroad companies look with simple astonishment on the wild fluctuations in the railroad tariffs incident to the American method of operation, and they do not hesitate to say that if any similar outrages were perpetrated on the French people and business public by them, the question of State ownership of railroads would immediately assume a new shape. Such proceedings would not be tolerated. ("The Railroad Problem," Adams, p. 108.)

The English, the Belgian, the French, and the German are the four great railroad systems. With many points in common, each has peculiar features deserving of careful study. In their political relations they are divided into two groups by a broad line of demarcation. On the one side of that line are the systems of the English-speaking race, based upon private enterprise and left for their regulation to the principles of *laissez faire*, the laws of competition, and of supply and demand. On the other side of the line are the systems of continental Europe, in the creation of which the State assumed the initiative, and over which it exercises constant and watchful supervision. In applying results drawn from the experience of one country to problems which present themselves in another, the difference of social and political habit and education should ever be borne in mind. Because in the countries of continental Europe the State can and does hold close relations, amounting even to ownership, with the railroads, it does not follow that the same course could be successfully pursued in England or in America. The former nations are by political habit administrative, the latter are parliamentary; in other words, France and Germany are essentially executive in their governmental systems, while England and America are legislative. Now the executive may design, construct, or operate a railroad; the legislative never can. A country, therefore, with a weak or unstable executive, or a crude and imperfect civil service, should accept with caution results achieved under a government of bureaux. Nevertheless, though conclusions can not be adopted in the gross, there may be in them much food for reflection. ("The Railroad Problem," Adams, pp. 115 and 116.)

Uncontrolled competition between railroads has been abandoned. The tendency of events is all in one direction. It varies simply in degree and as it is affected by the political habits and modes of thought of the nationalities. In one country the direct principle of exclusive State ownership is accepted, while in another a system of close public supervision is assuming shape. Thus supervision, always increasing in efficiency, would seem to be the practical Anglo-Saxon solution of the problem, while upon the continent of Europe that solution is abandoned in favor of a purely governmental system. The paths diverge, but the end is the same—the restraint of an excessive competition resulting in a perpetual chaos. Order is evolved in different ways, but it is evolved at last. ("The Railroad Problem," Adams, pp. 213 and 214.)

See "An Investor's Notes on American Railroads," Swann, 1887, pp. 124–129, and "The Railroad Question," Larrabee, 1893, p. 409, *et seq.*

[An extract from "Railway Practice," Alexander, 1887, pp. 46–50.]

As to the argument that our own Government manages our postal affairs, and generally with honesty and efficiency, I would say that there is such a radical dif-

ference between the relations to trade and commerce of the postal service and freight transportation that no parallel can be drawn. Letters and papers have no commercial value. Postal rates are uniform for all distances. No commercial rivalries are affected by them, and little money is involved in the operations of the Department but the salaries of the employés. But in the transportation of freight, and the rates charged upon it, every branch of agriculture, manufacture, and commerce, with their infinitely diversified rivalries, is intensely, vitally interested. Rates can not be uniform for all distances and nearly all articles, but there must be an infinite and frequently varying adjustment, or discrimination, and adaptation of rates to circumstances. * * * As to Prof. Ely's reference to the Prussian governmental railroad management, * * * Prussia is small and finished. We are very large and growing. There it is a recognized governmental duty to look after and take care of the people. Here the people take care of themselves, and it is our theory that free competition will work out the best results possible to human nature. ("Railway Practice," Alexander, pp. 46–50.)

[An extract from "The Railways and the Republic," Hudson, 1887, pp. 326, 327.]

There seems to be a general and well-founded belief that, while the management of the railways by the Government might remove many of the evils of corporate control, it would certainly, in our political system, cause others as great or greater. There are still some very respectable advocates of this system, who allege that it has proved a success in Europe. But the example of European railways can not be cited as conclusive for this country. The military considerations which govern the leading governmental railways in Europe are of no weight in this country, while the commercial purposes which are primary here are there secondary to the rapid concentration of troops at strategic points; nor does a comparison of their financial results with those of the American railways commend the plan. In Belgium the ratio of expenses to earnings is somewhat less on the State railways than on those of private companies, while in Germany the private railways have a slight advantage in this respect. But, making allowance for the business which the governments of these countries can put on their own roads at their own rates, the superiority of the private railways is marked, and confirms the theory, generally accepted in England and America, that in any business, private enterprise, with free competition, furnishes more economical and efficient service to the public than the ownership and management by the State. ("Railways and the Republic," Hudson, pp. 326, 327.)

[Extracts from "Railway Problems," Jeans, 1887.]

In all legislation that has taken place in reference to British railways since 1844, the possible ultimate acquisition of the system by the State has been steadily kept in view. ("Railway Problems," Jeans, p. 468.)

If the postal and telegraph systems were properly taken under Government control, there seems much more reason why the railway system should be, since railways are not only used by all, but exercise a power and influence on our social and our business relations that no other single element can claim to do. ("Railway Problems," Jeans, p. 457.)

In almost all European nations provision has been made for the ultimate acquisition of the railways as a whole, by the nation and for the nation. ("Railway Problems," Jeans, p. 456.)

Sir R. Hill gave the following, among other reasons, why railways should belong to the Government:

(*a*) A pecuniary gain to the State.
(*b*) A gain to shareholders and others in steadiness and security of income.
(*c*) Security against Parliamentary contests now so costly.
(*d*) A reduction (eventually large) in fares, freight, etc.
(*e*) Greater efficiency of management.
(*f*) Increased postal facilities. ("Railway Problems," Jeans, p. 459.)

[An extract from the Forum, vol. 5, p. 429, 1888, Hadley.]

We know how public business is habitually mismanaged, and there is no instance, even among the foreign countries with the best civil service, of state railroad systems conducted on the American standard of efficiency. But a large section of the public, more or less misled as to the evidence, believes in state railroad ownership and desires to see it introduced into the United States. (Forum, vol. 5, p. 429, 1888, Hadley.)

[An extract from "The Railways and the Traders," Acworth, 1891, preface, pp. 6, 7.]

Now I am no foe of government railways. On the contrary, I believe that in countries with a population less self-reliant than our own such a policy is necessary. In

a country with a bureaucracy as well trained and as well organized as that of Prussia it may even be desirable. Nay, more, I am not concerned to deny that even here (England) State purchase might do something to bring up the worst railway services more nearly to the level of the best. But a careful study of the evidence has convinced me that in the long run state control ends in keeping down the best to the level of the worst, and that, taking them for all and all, the private railway companies of England and the United States have served the public better than the government railways of the continent or of our Australian colonies, and, which is still more to the point, are likely to serve it better in the future. ("The Railways and the Traders," Acworth, 1891, pp. 6, 7.)

[Extracts from "The Working and Management of an English Railway," Findlay, 1889.]

The State purchase of railways would involve an objectionable amount of interference with the industries of the nation and with the character of the people. The Government would become the direct employer of a vast army of men of all classes, from laborers to highly-trained artisans, clerks, and officials. They must come in contact with trades unions, face the question of employer's liability, and all other difficult labor questions which from time to time agitate the industrial community, and at times they would even have to deal with strikes. ("The Working and Management of the English Railway," Findlay, p. 235.)

All experience of the working and of the scale of expenditure of government departments is strongly opposed to the belief that so vast and difficult an undertaking as the administration of the railways of the country could be carried on economically and upon sound commercial principles by a department of State. ("The Working and Management of an English Railway," Findlay, p. 236.)

It only remains to add that in France, where the experiment of ownership of railways by the State has been tried for many years past on a very considerable scale, an agitation is now growing up, as may be gathered from recent debates in the French Chambers, for the absolute sale of the State railways to private companies, on the grounds that the present system involves a very heavy annual loss to the exchequer, and that any advantages which may be expected to result from the ownership of the railways by the Government are not reaped by the public, but are applied to the furtherance of political objects. ("The Working and Management of an English Railway," Findlay, pp., 236, 237.)

In Belgium, where, as before stated, the railways are worked as a department of the State, and the appointment of minister of railways is a political one, the patronage which lies in his gift is well known to be largely exercised for party purposes. Promotion in the service is entirely governed by consideration of the political tendencies of the individuals concerned, and when the minister is a Liberal he will systematically refuse to appoint or promote officials who are known to belong to the Clerical party; while, on the other hand, if a Clerical minister is in office, there is no hope of advancement for Liberals until their friends in turn succeed in power. ("The Working and Management of an English Railway," Findlay, p. 237.)

In Germany, where there has been considerale experience of the plan of working the railways as a Government department, the financial result does not appear to be too encouraging. The railway department, it is true, figures in the budget with a large annual profit, but this is only apparent, for the Landtag is every year called upon to vote supplies to be expended on the railways far in excess of the so-called profit, notwithstanding which, loud complaints are heard of the want of sufficient plant for carrying on the working in efficient manner. ("The Working and Management of an English Railway," Findlay, p. 237.)

[Extracts from "Railway Rates and Government Control," Kirkman, 1892.]

The question of Government ownership and management of railroads has not been much discussed in the United States. There seems to be a tacit understanding among practical men that it would not be desirable. The Government itself has studiously discouraged such reference. ("Railway Rates and Government Control," Kirkman, p. 236.)

Governmental management lacks spirit, alertness, and a desire to please, p. 207. * * * It is nowhere the equal of private effort, p. 209. * * * Its effect is to retard improvements, to prevent new enterprises, to lessen the interest of owner and manager in the comforts and conveniences of the people, p. 217. * * * It is made up of about equal parts of business and politics, trade and theory, frankness and evasion, knowledge and ignorance, industry and sloth, p. 223. * * * It is practiced more or less in many countries, not because the people thought it the best way, but because government aid was necessary in the first instance to build the roads, p. 224. ("Railway Rates and Government Control," Kirkman.)

The highest good that can attach to government intervention in a country whose people possess commercial spirit or enterprise is to be found in a wisely supervising

body, such as the board of trade of Great Britain, or the Interstate Commerce Commission of the United States. (P. 232, note.) ("Railway Rates and Government Control," Kirkman.)

In no instance has state ownership of railroads answered the expectation of those who advocated it from a belief that rates would be cheapened and facilities bettered thereby. ("Railway Rates and Government Control," Kirkman, p. 233.)

The author of our interstate commerce act (Hon. Shelby M. Cullom) found Government ownership and management of railroads in Germany anything but agreeable. He discovered that it greatly increased the number of employés and surrounded the service with tedious and harassing regulations. ("Railway Rates and Government Control," Kirkman, p. 250, note.)

There is [said he] at each station a small army of uniformed employés who make more fuss about the arrival or departure of a train than one sees in a year's travel in the United States. If American railroads were to employ such a number of men, and pay them the current American rates of wages, the lines could not earn enough to pay them if traffic rates were doubled. * * * In Germany all is fuss and feathers. Every railway employé is a Government official, and there is enough red tape to weary an American. (Chicago Post, September 24, 1891.) ("Railway Rates and Government Control," Kirkman, p. 250.)

[Extracts from "Railway Secrecy and Trusts," Bonham, 1890.]

But the power of the state must be clearly confined to supervision and control, and must involve no kind of state ownership or interest for profits. ("Railway Secrecy and Trusts," Bonham, p. 87.)

In the end, the essential function of a free government is restricted to the guardianship of political and industrial equality, and this guardianship necessarily involves judicial and impartial relations to the subject-matter of control. ("Railway Secrecy and Trusts," Bonham, p. 87.)

The government can never secure a free field for competition to all the citizens where it is not disinterested. As well might we expect a judge to decide equally and fairly between litigants, where that judge is an interested party, as to expect a government to preserve industrial equality where its interests are involved as a participant in profits. This principle does not preclude government ownership where industrial competition is not a factor. The government may own a navy without impairing the principle. Such ownership is not for profit. It may own and conduct a post-office; this is for convenience and without profit. For the like reason it may own and conduct an exclusive telegraph system. It has been the owner of vast untenanted lands in the West. They have never been dealt with as a private owner deals with his own property. ("Railway Secrecy and Trusts," Bonham, p. 88.)

[Extracts from the "Report on the Relations of the Governments of the nations of Western Europe to the Railways," by Simon Sterne, 1887.]

Personal and preferential rates have been so completely eliminated from railway tariffs in civilized European states that it may be said that substantially they no longer exist (p. 42).

In one particular, however, the European governments have been more just to the railway companies and more conservative of their interests than we have been in this country. They have coupled supervision and control with the recognition of the right to the undivided occupancy of a field, and have prevented the mere duplication of railways not called for by public necessity, and which had and have their origin solely in the desire to divide a profitable field with another railway. (Sterne's Report, pp. 42 and 43.)

This report refers to the danger there will be in Government ownership of the railways in the United States from the patronage attending the large personnel employed in railway enterprises.

The inference is drawn therefrom that for any government like that of the United States, the officials of which are elective and their tenure of office dependent largely upon the popular will, either the ownership of railways or their very effectual control by a central authority would so add to the power and patronage of any political party in office that it would be difficult to displace it, and would therefore be a menace to our form of government. (Sterne's Report, p. 43.)

Moreover, an impediment to the acquisition ultimately by the Government of the United States of the railways of the country exists in the nature of our institutions themselves, insomuch as no constitutional power exists on the part of the General Government to acquire these railroads. (Sterne's Report, p. 44.)

[Extracts from "The Railroad Question," Larrabee, 1893.]

The experiment of State ownership and management of railroads has been longest tried in Belgium, and with the best results. With an excellent service the rates of the Belgium State roads are the lowest in Europe. Their first-class passenger tariffs are, next to the zone tariff recently adopted on the State roads of Hungary, the lowest in the world, and are, for the same distance, lower than those of American roads. ("The Railroad Question," Larrabee, p. 409.)

In France and Prussia the State service is superior to that of the private companies. ("The Railroad Question," Larrabee, pp. 409 and 410.)

Ex-Governor Larrabee, in this work, also points to the demoralizing influence in case of Government ownership of railroad employés in politics. ("The Railroad Question," Larrabee, p. 412.)

Mr. T. B. Blackstone, president of the Chicago and Alton Railroad Company, declares in favor of Government ownership of roads on the ground that by this means the railroads could dispose of their property to the Government at a price representing several times their original cost, or several times the cost of duplication. ("The Railroad Question," Larrabee, p. 413.)

[Extracts from "Railroad Transportation," Hadley, 1893.]

In judging the railroad policy of Belgium by its results, all must unite in admitting that they are in many respects extraordinarily good. What their average rates are, we have already seen. The passenger rates are lower than anywhere else in the world, except, perhaps, on some East Indian railroads. The freight rates are much lower than anywhere else in Europe. Nominally, they are about the same as in the United States. Practically, they are lower for almost any given service, because Belgium does not have the enormous long-distance traffic which brings down the average in the United States. ("Railroad Transportation," Hadley, p. 216.)

While not withholding the freest praise from the Belgium system, we may fairly ascribe much of its success to other causes than enlightened State management, or deliberate public policy. ("Railroad Transportation," Hadley, p. 218.)

There is a strong popular feeling, to a large extent unsuspected by those in authority, in favor of Government ownership of railroads as a system. No one can have much to do with the more thoughtful workingmen without finding how strong that feeling is, and what hopes are based upon it. The fact that the question is not more under discussion must not blind us to the fact that forces are at work which may prove all but revolutionary when the question actually does come up under discussion. If it be true that Government railroad ownership would be a most serious political misfortune for the United States, we must be prepared to meet the danger with our eyes open. Unless we are able to face it intelligently, and to show reason for our action, the widespread feeling in its favor will prove too strong for us. It may not come for many years; but the lessons of the Granger movement show plainly enough what forces will lie behind it when it does come. ("Railroad Transportation," Hadley, p. 258.)

MISCELLANEOUS.

The people of England, proud of their commercial ability and jealous of their commercial liberties, spurn the idea of governmental ownership or management of the railroads. (Joseph Nimmo, jr.)

If ever American social ideas be ripe for the ownership and operation of railways by the State, then it will be time for a change of policy; at present the ideas of the Republic are not compatible with State socialism as applied to railways. If the United States will do justice between them and the people, it will do all that society expects for awhile. ("The Union Pacific Railway," Davis, 1894.)

The zone tariff systems of Hungary and Austria constitute the most important reform of modern times in the administration of the passenger traffic by railway. It was inaugurated in 1889, and its object was to encourage long-distance travel between the capital and the provinces, the theory being that the increased volume of travel would fully compensate for the lower charges to individuals. Each railway is divided into sections called zones, and all the railways of Hungary have a common center at Budapesth. The zones are established to and from that center. Passenger rates are fixed, not per mile or per kilometer, but at so much per zone, the charge for every fraction of a zone being the same as for a full zone, thus bearing some analogy to the practice of grouping rates in freight traffic. As each zone constantly increases in length over that immediately preceding it, the effect of the system is evidently a constantly diminishing rate per mile or per kilometer in proportion to distance traveled. ("Railroad Regulation in Foreign Countries," appendix to Fourth Annual Rep., I. C. C., p. 334, *et seq.*)

Regulation through State ownership has been practically unknown in the United States. It is of foreign origin and is foreign to the character of our institutions. The time may come when the people of the United States will be forced to consider the advisability of placing the railways of the country completely under the control of the General Government, as the postal service is, and as many believe the telegraph service should be. This would seem to be the surest method of securing the highest perfection and greatest efficiency of the railroad system in its entirety, and the best method of making it an harmonious whole in its operation and of bringing about that uniformity and stability of rates which is the greatest need of trade and commerce. But the dangers to be apprehended from the giving of such vast additional power to the Government will always prove a formidable barrier to the adoption of such a policy, and this committee sees no necessity for considering its advantages or disadvantages until other methods of regulation more American in spirit have at least been given a trial and have proved unsatisfactory. Nor is it deemed important to investigate in detail the experience of those European nations in which the policy of state ownership or management in one form or another has prevailed. (The report of the Senate Select Committee on Interstate Commerce, 1886.)

The difference between American and foreign railways is very great, and the advantages are all on the side of the American railroad. The English is better than the continental railway and more progressive, and the reason seems to be in state ownership. The nearer you get to governmental proprietorship in the lines the more uncomfortable and old-fogy and nonprogressive they remain. (Chauncey M. Depew, Railway Review, 1887, p. 668.)

In my judgment there is no adequate necessity for our country to try that which I think would be a dangerous experiment of the Government in assuming the enormous burden of debt which the acquisition of all the railroads would involve, and to engage in a business that requires a force of nearly 1,000,000 men. * * * The necessity should be the most extreme before such enormous power and working force should be added to that which the General Government already has. * * * As a general proposition rates are low. * * * Regulation under the law, State and national, is working out its designed result in correcting evils that had crept into railroad administration. * * * In a word, without stating further reasons, I do not believe that transportation by common carriers, or the interests of commerce, will be improved by Government ownership and operation of railroads. The railroads themselves, as artificial persons, would undoubtedly be benefited in a majority of cases by Government assumption, but I would not take the risk of it. (Interstate Commerce Commissioner Veazey: Interview in the Washington Star, July 21, 1894.)

[Extracts from "The People and The Railways," 1888, Morgan.]

The railroads are tyrants, they dominate this public, they purchase legislators, corrupt judiciaries, rule us with a rod of iron, is the popular cry. What is the remedy? Why, make them still stronger, make them the very Government itself." ("The People and The Railways," p. 171.)

At present, utterly depraved as our railways are, and skillful as the high priced legal talent they monopolize, they do, sometimes, pay for our baggage when they smash it, our cattle when they kill them, our freight when they destroy or mislay it, for our legs and arms and eyes when they maim us. I do not know whether all this would be done with a greater or less alacrity under a system of governmental controlled railways. But I think I do know that the more paternal a Government becomes, it is apt to take rather less than more care of the individual subject. ("The People and The Railways," p. 173.)

The fairest plan would seem to be, if the railways were to be purchased at all, to enact that when any railroad company had paid its stockholders a certain agreed dividend for a certain number of years, then the Government should purchase its entire line and plant, at a valuation of its stock based upon the payment of such dividends. If any plan were practicable, I think this plan would be. And if any plan of Government railway purchase could ever be just and honest to the involuntary venders I think this one might be made so. ("The People and The Railways," p. 174.)

[Extracts from "National Consolidation of Railways," 1893, Lewis.]

A very large part of the social leadership of this country, instead of being a conservative force against the encroachments of the railway system, as in England, here casts its strength in favor of that system. So that consolidations of railway power which might be harmless in England, because counterbalanced by the power of the nobility, would be terribly dangerous in this country, where the force of wealthy and powerful families is directly opposite, and is cast into the scale of the railroad power. ("*National Consolidation of Railways*," p. 146.)

Thus, on account of radical differences both in the social organization and in the political constitution and form of government, a world-wide difference exists in the effect which the same consolidation of railway power under private ownership would exert in this country and in England. That which might be there safe would be here exceedingly dangerous, and in the end practically subversive of our republican form of government. ("National Consolidation of Railways," p. 148.)

If the National Government should buy up the roads, while nominally it would own them, in fact the ownership would be in the individuals and institutions furnishing the money to buy the bonds which the Government must issue to purchase the roads. Nor is governmental control necessarily the best method of managing the railroads. It might be the worst possible method if under the control of a corrupt and unscrupulous coterie of politicians. In such a case neither property nor business interests nor commercial or political liberty would be safe. ("National Consolidation of Railways," p. 207.)

The objection to governmental control on the ground of danger in our political affairs is not obviated by permitting this control to be left in the hands of a few private citizens. In fact, carefully analyzed, the objection will be seen to be based on the power which so vast an aggregate of wealth in one line of business, capable of being so easily controlled toward one object, inevitably creates. ("National Consolidation of Railways," p. 253.)

And in reply to the point made against Government ownership, that the railroad system would exercise too great an influence in our politics, I answer that the railroads now exercise a most dangerous and often corrupt influence in our politics, both State and national. ("National Consolidation of Railways," p. 260.)

In every State of the Union railroad influence is powerful, if not dominant, in its politics, and it is doubtful whether, if the Government should purchase the railroads their influence in politics would be any greater than it is now. The concentration of this influence, however, in national politics, with the vast power which so great a number of office holders would exert in a national canvass, would make this influence exceedingly dangerous. ("National Consolidation of Railways," p. 267.)

[An extract from "National Railways: An Argument for State Purchase," by James Hole, 1893, (English).]

As governments improve, more public work can be intrusted to them, and they in turn are improved by it. The process is gradual. Thus it happens that individuals make a highway or a bridge at their own cost, and as recompense charge a toll. In time this is found to be an uncertain, slow, and costly process, and the community makes its own roads and bridges. The post-office was started as a private enterprise, and if it had remained one it would never have reached its present magnificent development. The telegraphs have followed this example. The adaptation of it, the telephone, will do the same. Gas, water supply, tramways, are falling under municipal ownership. Electric lighting is now in the private, or company enterprise stage, but the examples of Bradford and St. Pancras (about to be followed in other places) show that this, too, is likely to fall within the sphere of municipal government. And when these public improvements are taken out of private ownership, those who led the way should be justly, even liberally, compensated.

So, too, railways fall under the class of things that the state ought to own in the public interest. It is admitted that private enterprise originated and perfected them, that it found the capital and energy to spread them over the country. The fair presumption, however, is that railroads, like all other roads, should be under public authority, and this is confirmed by practical experience. In other words, that to secure the full advantages of which the railway system is capable it should be in the ownership of the state, as the trustee of the public. ("National Railways," pp. 10, 11.)

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